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# BARNARD COLLEGE*

## 1889–1914

THE preoccupations of the world's war and our participating distress in it have postponed this celebration somewhat beyond the appointed time. The significant fact is, however, that we have come to one of those conventional periods in the history of an institution when we are disposed to stop, to look and to listen, with a view to reminding ourselves of the nature of that which we are doing, and in order to comprehend more fully its why and its wherefore. The dusty routine of the day's academic work easily obscures the clear sky of principle and policy from which our College draws both its light and its warmth. Every quarter century or so we must try to shake ourselves free of the daily routine in order to take a look into that clear sky.

Twenty-five years is a considerable period in the life of a woman; indeed it is sometimes alleged that no cautious woman will ever avow that she has lived so long. But in the life of a woman's college twenty-five years is not likely to count as a long period unless all signs of the time about us fail. The woman's college has some time since taken its easy and well-fitting place in our educational and social life. The difficulties that once impeded its course have either been surmounted or they have disappeared of their own weightlessness. The insoluble problems that were once confronted by it have either been solved, despite their insolubility, or they have shown themselves not to be problems but prejudices. In fact, one cannot help wondering why so much fuss was made some forty, or thirty, or twenty-five years ago in this and other communities about providing suitable instruction of collegiate grade for women. Some intellectual acumen and no inconsiderable moral earnestness were engaged in debating this question at the time when Barnard College was founded. Not many years have passed, but one who reads the controversial pamphlets and addresses of that period will find difficulty in escaping the feeling that they deal with something as remote from the interests of today as do the issues of the war of the Spanish Succession.

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* An address delivered at the Convocation in Commemoration of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the founding of Barnard College, April 29, 1915.

Faced by facts and feelings such as these, we must ask ourselves what is it that has happened. Have some of the old arguments for the college education of women so greatly gained in force, and have some of the old arguments against the college education of women so largely lost in effectiveness, that the former have completely conquered the latter in our mind? Has a generation's experience removed the hesitancies, the doubts and the opposition that were founded on those admirable and much loved prejudices to which we give the high name of principles when we wish to offer them as an excuse for not doing something? Probably these questions are not yet ripe for full and satisfactory answer. Probably, too, when they are ripe for answer the answer will come not so much from the historian as from that student of human nature who best understands all its many bendings and twistings and intertwinings of reflective thought and emotional influence.

For us the plain fact is that Barnard College has justified itself and that it has sustained the hopes and prayers of those who founded and have nourished it through a quarter century of time. It has taken its appointed and worthy place in Columbia University, and there has been no time when it has not given to the University loyal and effective cooperation and support. As one of the University's younger children—if the rapidly disappearing difference of sex would only disappear a bit more rapidly, I might almost call it the Benjamin of our family—Barnard College has been an object of particular solicitude and concern to us all. The whole University has been constantly proud of its steadfast adherence to sound standards and to good principles, and the whole University has shared in the repute which Barnard College has won by reason of the quality and the spirit of those women who have gone out from under its influence fortified and made ready for new and larger responsibility.

Perhaps none but the incurably contentious will now stop to discuss the relative merits and advantages of the three types of institution which exist in America to offer college instruction to women. The college in which co-education is accompanied by co-instruction is the prevailing type, particularly in those parts of the country that lie to the west of the original thirteen states. The separate college in which avoidance of co-instruction carries with it of necessity the avoidance of co-education, has many and splendid representatives throughout the nation. The university college for women, in which co-instruction is avoided and co-education secured, is the less frequent type; and of this type Barnard College is a conspicuous example. The atmosphere in which the student of Barnard College lives and works is one distinctive of co-education of the sexes. Not only are the educational opportunities and influences offered here to women equal to those offered to men, but they are the same. The conditions of residence and of instruction are separate for college students of the two sexes and this is a distinctive feature of Barnard College; but the hundred and one subtle influences and opportunities of education that accompany but do not depend upon conditions of either residence or instruction, are the same and common to those college students who are women as well as to those college students who are men. As between these three types of institution we are not called upon to choose. The choice was made for us a quarter century ago, partly by the conditions that exist in the city of New York, and partly as the result of the cogent and persuasive argument of Mrs. Annie Nathan Meyer, who has been through all these years a trustee of Barnard College.

Vigorous promoters of intercollegiate debate may, if the spirit so moves them, train heroes and heroines who will contend that one of these three types of institution is the best, and that the chosen type should wage war upon the other two types until these are exterminated. The more agreeable person in whose make-up common sense and practical-mindedness play a larger part, will content himself with the observation that the institutions of each type have their place and a function to perform in our complicated American life, and he will wish well to them all. The sly partisan of Barnard College, even while holding fast to this sensible and broad-minded program, will perhaps find an opportunity to quote the words of President Barnard, written in 1879, when he said that the objection to creating separate colleges for young women identical in form with the existing colleges for young men, embracing in the scheme of instruction the same subjects in the same order and conferring at the end of the course the same academic degrees, is that these separate colleges for young women "cannot, or at least in general will not, give instruction of equal value, though it may be the same in name, with that furnished to young men in the long established and well endowed colleges of highest repute in the country; and that it is unjust to young women when admitting their right to liberal education to deny them access to the best."

It would not be profitable now to go over again in detail the story of the agitation and the discussions which preceded the foundation of Barnard College and which occupied the attention of this community not a little; yet this is the time and this the place to recall their main outlines. In 1879 President Barnard in his Annual Report to the Trustees of Columbia College presented an elaborate and cogent argument in favor not only of the higher education of women, but of their admission to Columbia College on equal terms with men. He returned to the attack in his Annual Report for 1880, and again in his Annual Report for 1881. In the following year, however, an official obstacle was encountered. The Trustees of Columbia College, not sharing President Barnard's views and not wishing to be quite so publicly identified with them, referred his Annual Report for 1882 to a special committee for revision. When this report was returned for printing, the usual long and careful argument for the admission of women to Columbia College was reduced to a rather brief and not particularly striking statement of the President's well known views. Even under these gloomy circumstances, however, President Barnard did not refrain from expressing his strong opinions and his confident hopes. "Columbia College," he wrote, "may not in our own day be opened to the admission of women; but that it will be so in that better coming time which awaits another generation, appears to the undersigned to be as certain as anything yet beneath the veil of the future can be."

In the following year, 1883, the matter of providing college instruction for women was presented formally to the Trustees of Columbia College by a petition asking that consideration be given to "how best to extend with as little delay as possible, to such properly qualified women as may desire it, the many and great benefits of education in Columbia College by admitting them to lectures and examinations." To this petition were attached the signatures of between fourteen and fifteen hundred persons. They represented nearly every class in New York society and included members of the learned professions as well as bankers, merchants, school teachers, officers of the Army and Navy, and men in public life. The petition was described by the Committee to which it was referred as remarkable, not only for the large number of the signers and their eminence and respectability, but also—and here we can see a slight twinkle in the eye of the reverend writer of the report—"for the very wide diversity which is known to exist in their views on the subject of the education of women, and the variety and comparative amount of their information on the subject of pedagogics."

The Trustees of Columbia College to whom as a Special Committee this petition was referred were, the Rev. Dr. Morgan Dix, Mr. William C. Schermerhorn, the Rev. Dr. Talbot W. Chambers, Dr. Cornelius Agnew, and Mr. John J. Townsend. This Committee, in a careful report submitted on March 5, 1883, treated the petition as "an outcome and representation of a widespread feeling of dissatisfaction with existing methods of female education, and of an equally widespread wish that something should be done, or at least attempted, by the Trustees of Columbia College to improve those methods, to elevate the standard of instruction, to abate certain evils and abuses, and thus to secure for young women the means of a better education than that which they now receive." The Committee declared their sympathy with these sentiments and their desire to cooperate in effecting much-needed reforms of this character.

To the practical question as to whether women should be admitted to Columbia College on equal terms with men, the Committee gave a negative answer. They passed in review the earlier action of the Trustees of Columbia College on this whole subject. The first record relating to the matter is to the effect that on December 4, 1876, the Trustees of Columbia College, by unanimous vote, laid on the table a memorial presented to them by an association of ladies known as Sorosis, asking that women be admitted to the College classes. Three years later, on October 6, 1879, a motion was made at a meeting of the Trustees, presumably by President Barnard himself, to the effect that the Statutes of the College should be so construed as not to prohibit the attendance of women on certain courses of lectures under certain conditions. This resolution was referred to a Standing Committee for consideration and report; and at the following meeting of the Trustees, held on November 3, 1879, this Committee reported, recommending that the resolution should not be adopted and that the system of the College should not be changed. It is stated that the recommendation of this Committee received "the emphatic, if not quite the unanimous, approval of the Trustees." This is a polite way of making it plain that President Barnard voted alone in the negative.

After discussing at some length the whole question of co-education, which term was then used so as to include and to connote co-instruction, the Committee recommended that on practical and financial grounds women be not admitted to Columbia College. They added that, in order to attest their interest in the subject brought before them by the petitioners and their sympathy with those who desired improvement in the prevailing methods of female education, they recommended that action be taken to draw up and announce a course of study which duly qualified women might pursue and then, under suitable regulations, present themselves to the Faculty of Columbia College for examination. Those women who sustained such examination should receive a suitable testimonial or diploma attesting their success.

These recommendations were further elaborated and were then adopted by the Trustees of Columbia College on June 4, 1883. Out of this action grew the so-called Collegiate Course for Women which came into existence in the autumn of the year 1883. The essential characteristics of the plan were that Columbia College provided examinations for women, but required that preparation to pass those examinations should be made elsewhere. A prophet of very moderate excellence and of slight experience might well have predicted that this scheme would fail. The women students desired instruction, not examination. They preferred the traditional meat to the proverbial stone. So it came about that after an experience of five inconspicuous years, the Trustees of Columbia College decided to discontinue the Collegiate Course for Women and to approve the establishment of an associate but separate school under the name of Barnard College, in which instruction was to be given by the professors in Columbia College under certain regulations and restrictions. With this action Barnard College was started on its way with the approval and the blessing of the University, of which it was soon to become a part.

The germ of Barnard College is to be found in a passage contained in the report made to the Trustees of Columbia College by their Select Committee on March 5, 1883, that has already been referred to. In that report is to be found the following passage:

"If it were practicable to offer a suggestion to the many eminent signers of the petition now under consideration, your Committee would most respectfully remind them that they have it in their power to make contributions amply sufficient to found and maintain a school for the education of women, and that they could not in any way so clearly manifest the depth and sincerity of their interest in the subject, as by providing such a school, to be organized as a part of the University and to be under the auspices of its general government while yet entirely detached from its existing departments. Should such a substantial evidence of the strength of their faith be given, your Committee have no doubt that it would afford great gratification to the Board and that they would carefully consider how best to develop the growth of so interesting a foundation."

Not often have fruitful suggestion and prophecy been so happily combined.

Myths develop and accumulate so rapidly even in the history of modern education, that it is well here and now to make it plain that there never was any antagonism to Barnard College on the part of Columbia College. This fact was testified to specifically and eloquently by the Rev. Arthur Brooks, Chairman of the Trustees of Barnard College, before an important meeting of trustees and associate members of the College that was held on November 21, 1890. The purpose of this meeting was to receive the report of the work of the first year of the College and to inaugurate a movement for the accumulation of a reasonable endowment. At that time Mr. Brooks said: "We owe this successful beginning which has been made, in the first place, to that essential feature of Barnard College's existence, its connection with Columbia College. It had not to make a standard of its own or to raise the question as to what was its aim. The aim and the standard were Columbia's. . . . To allow Barnard College to suffer or to languish would now mean the maiming of Columbia College, which, to the pride and glory of New York, is at the present time taking so many forward steps. It would be the first failure of the College in its history of more than a century. We gladly believe that the bond between the two Colleges is so strong that the parent, old and yet young with new energy, would sadly feel the loss of this, its youngest and most promising and attractive child."

The movement inaugurated on that day is still going on. It is of special interest to read now the report submitted at that early meeting by Miss Ella Weed, a noble and unselfish woman who put her very heart's blood into the task of organizing and building up Barnard College. In her report Miss Weed sets out with precision and completeness the status of Barnard College, its incorporation in the University system, and its hopes and plans for the future. She said: "Barnard College has no separate academic existence. Educationally considered, Barnard is Columbia. Its only autonomy is administrative and financial. . . . We desire to emphasize as publicly as possible the fairness with which every effort of Barnard College has been met by the President, Trustees, and Faculty of Columbia College. It is not so well known as it should be, that Barnard College has never had to work against any opposition from the university. The Trustees of Columbia College, in granting the degree, gave first of all what has been persistently refused elsewhere—equal honors for equal work."

So it was that Barnard College was organized and started on its way. The twenty-five years of its history that are past record the devoted service to the college of a notable group of men and women. They have served it, some on the Governing Board and some on the Faculty, with thought, with study, with painstaking attention to its business, with generous gifts, with scholarly teaching, with fine human insight into young womanhood, and with that sympathy which comes from understanding young womanhood's thoughts and feelings. These representative names, among others, are enrolled forever on the list of the princely benefactors of the College: first and foremost that of Mrs. Anderson, and then those of Brinckerhoff, Burgess, Carpentier, Fiske, Gibbes, Goodwin, Harriman, Kennedy, Low, Moir, Ogilvie, Pulitzer and Rockefeller. In succession the Rev. Arthur Brooks, Mr. Abram S. Hewitt, and Dr. Brownell have guided with steadfast care and clear vision the deliberations of the Trustees. Of the six names that appear on the first list of officers of instruction and government of Columbia College who were in charge of the classes of Barnard College, four fortunately are still found upon the University's rolls. These young teachers have in the interval become the Anthon Professor of Latin, Dr. McCrea; the senior professor of Mathematics, Dr. Fiske; the Director of the Botanical Garden, Dr. Britton; and the Provost of the University, Dr. Carpenter. A fifth, Mortimer Lamson Earle, was unhappily taken from us while in the full power of his young and productive scholarship. Miss Ella Weed, who, though she never had the title of Dean, was in fact the first executive of the College, was followed in its administrative oversight in succession by Miss Emily James Smith, by Miss Laura Drake Gill, and latest by a fine flower of Barnard's own garden, Miss Virginia C. Gildersleeve. Patiently and with deep concern, each of these women in turn has aided markedly in building the structure, not made with hands, that is the true Barnard College. By their side have been, in season and out of season, the unfailing optimism, the resourceful persistence, and the single-minded devotion of the Treasurer of the College, Mr. George A. Plimpton. As was said of Queen Mary and Calais, I am quite sure that when, in the distant future, Mr. Plimpton leaves Barnard College for ever, its name will be found written on his heart.

It is one of the misfortunes of literary history that Sydney Smith and Euripides were not contemporaries. Had they been able to face each other with argument and with pen, there would have been added to the documents that bear upon the education of women the record of a lively debate between the English wit and the Greek tragedian. It is more than one hundred years since Sydney Smith contributed to the *Edinburgh Review* his notable article on female education, in the course of which he complained that women "are kept with nimble fingers and vacant understandings, till the season for improvement is utterly passed away, and all chance of forming more important habits completely lost." He scoffed at the notion that women had no leisure for learning, and insisted that "the lawyer who passed his day in exasperating the bickerings of Roe and Doe, is certainly as much engaged as his lady who has the whole of the morning before her to correct the children and pay the bills." He declined to give any force whatever to the objection which proceeded from the mere novelty of teaching women more than they were already taught. "A century ago," he added, "who would have believed that country gentlemen could be brought to read and spell with the ease and accuracy which we now so frequently remark—or supposed that they could be carried up even to the elements of ancient and modern history?" He had a fling, too, at mere men; for "women have, of course, all ignorant men for enemies to their instruction, who being bound as they think, in point of sex, to know more, are not well pleased, in point of fact, to know less."

Euripides, however, was quite otherwise minded. He held views of womankind that are today quite unorthodox, to say the least. For him a woman was a poor she-thing. "Why, then," he wrote," "need we trouble ourselves to guard the women folk? For those that are carefully tended deceive us worse than the neglected ones." Here, surely, is material for high debate. In this University, opinion, I fancy, would be pretty unanimous in taking one side only of the question which the words of Euripides suggest. It has not been our experience that the womankind whom we have tended have failed us or the community. Rather do we feel that out of the doors of Barnard College there has gone for twenty-five years a constantly increasing stream of young women among whom were the very flower of their kind. It has been our best endeavor to teach them to see life steadily and to see it whole.

This particular twenty-five years has not been the most favorable time in all history for seeing life steadily or for seeing it whole. There have been forces and tendencies at work that have substituted mental and moral flickering and flabbiness for steadiness, and mental and moral fragmentariness for seeing anything with completeness. Nevertheless, it is only from the study of nature, of history, and of man that we can hope to draw those elements of strength, of well-balanced sagacity, and of wisdom that make it possible for us, as personal experience widens and deepens and the years pass and the shadows about us lengthen, to see life steadily and to see it whole.

Barnard College is nothing so temporary and so inutile as a mere cog in the wheel of feminist propaganda. It is a serious and solemn human undertaking which conceives itself as bearing a grave responsibility toward womanhood, toward society, and toward the University whose traditions and unconquerable vitality it shares. If the College be kept true to the spirit and the aim of its founders, if it continue Christian, catholic, large-minded, sincere, and scholarly, it will increase with each year in power as a builder of character and a shaper of intelligence in that womanhood which is at once the glory and the hope of our civilization.

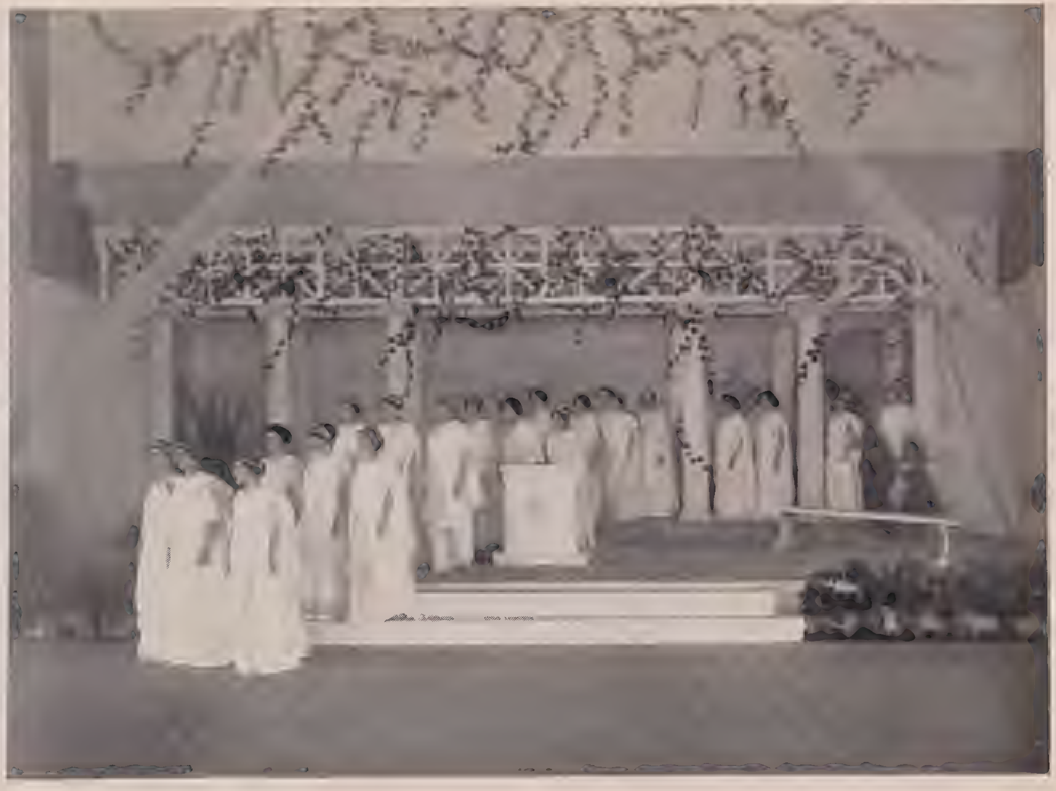
NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER

# GREEK GAMES

"Tis true we did not win the laurel wreath
To crown our labors, yet who will deny
That we served Beauty, sang the victors' praise
As one who fails with honor?"

THESE lines from the history of the Class of 1916, recounting its honorable defeat in the Greek Games of its sophomore year, express very well the spirit of that beautiful festival held each spring at Barnard College. Our Greek Games are a striking example of the modern use of play and pageant in education. Their elaborate structure of poetry, music, dance, costume, and athletics grows largely out of the students' work in their college courses. The dance and the athletic contests are a culmination of much of the work of the freshman and sophomore prescribed courses in Physical Education; the poetry, the costuming and the music are closely related to the work of the departments of English, Classics, and Music. The festival, moreover, unites these elements in a somewhat unique whole. The athletic it makes aesthetic, and the aesthetic, intellectual, and blends them all with a spirit of youth and enthusiasm and "service of Beauty."

One of the best features of the Games is that they are a purely spontaneous, local growth, developing gradually and naturally among the Barnard undergraduates. They originated in the spring of 1903, when a few energetic members of the Class of 1905, then sophomores, thought it would be amusing to challenge the freshmen to an informal and private athletic contest, with a suggestion of the ancient Greek festivals about it, and including a competition in poetry. The event proved such very good fun that the students continued it as an annual festival for the sophomore and freshman classes. From a simple, sketchy, and crude beginning, it has developed from year to year, and it is still growing. Mainly athletic at first, it is now dominated chiefly by the aesthetic and intellectual elements. This change was due largely to the introduction, in 1908, by the Class of 1910, of a competition in chorus and dance.



GREEK GAMES THE ENTRANCE OF THE CLASS

Like so many of those of classic Hellas, this festival is a *contest*,—a fact which is of great importance. In the first place, it makes the occasion far more alive and thrilling than any mere pageant, however beautiful, could be. The spirit of striving and competition for the glory of the class keeps every student alert and on tip-toe with interest and enthusiasm. It forces the students, moreover, to invent and develop their work for themselves. Since the two classes are competing, it would not, of course, be fair for either to accept any considerable amount of outside aid or suggestions in the features which it offers in competition. Our professors, therefore, merely give general advice and criticism to both sides and leave the students to rely on their own powers of initiative, invention and execution.

The Games are dedicated each year to some god or goddess from the Greek pantheon, chosen by the joint committee from the two classes. The Columbia University Gymnasium, where for the last few years the festival has been held, is set with a suggestion of the white columns of a Greek temple and the altar of the god. The "Entrance of the Classes" is the first event. The sound of girls' voices is heard in the distance, and the freshmen, about two hundred strong, attired in classic Greek costume and singing an entrance chorus, march into the hall and around the altar of the god. After they have seated themselves on the mats along one side of the open arena, the sophomores similarly enter, chant their opening song, and group themselves opposite. The judges of the "Entrance" award points for the words, music and singing of the entrance chorus, and for the beauty, appropriateness and archæological accuracy of the costumes. Since the cost per student is rigorously limited to a very low figure, and the girls design, manufacture and sometimes even dye the costumes themselves, they deserve great credit for the admirable effect which the class generally achieves.

Two priestesses now enter, the presidents of the two classes. The elder delivers an invocation to the presiding deity of the festival, sometimes in English, last year in beautiful and effective classic Greek verse.

The chief event of the Games is the contest in Chorus and Dance. Talented members of each class have composed words and music and devised a symbolic dance in honor of the god. The chorus stands in the background singing, while the dancers express the thoughts in rhythmic motion and gesture. Lacking in professional finish, the dance has generally a peculiar charm of youth and freshness and grace. The music is modelled on suggestions of the ancient Greek modes. Perhaps the winning Dance and Chorus of the Class of 1916 from the Games in 1913, in honor of Demeter, will serve as an example,—simple, of course, in idea, but very charming when performed by lithe, happy, graceful young dancers.

### Synopsis of Dance

(by Gertrude Schuyler, 1916)

"'Tis winter, for Demeter has forbidden the earth to be fruitful until her daughter be restored to her. The maidens search for their lost companion, and call for her, but in vain; they gather about Pluto's altar and pray to him for the return of Persephone. The prayer is answered. With Persephone's return comes Spring; once more the earth is fruitful, and the maidens dance together in joy."

### Words of Dance Chorus

(by Mary Powell, 1916)

"Sisters, hear the mountain-echo sending back our call,
Over fields and valleys green and rushing water-fall.
Faint afar it still resounds; ah, would that it might bring
Our vanished Spring!
Far and near, from far and near, we gather one and all,
Listening ever in our play to hear the echo-call,
Longing for our comrade dear afar.
Maiden fair whom Ceres stately
Loved so dear and mourns so greatly,
Come at our call!

"Dancing before thee,
Dark king, we implore thee,
Look up from below!

. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .

"Birds are winging to the southlands,
Winter sheds her mantle grayly,
Sere and withered stand the poplars
Where the buds were springing gaily.
Sad the morrow, all is sorrow,
All is sorrow, sorrow, sorrow!

GREEK GAMES

"Pluto, grim in darksome splendor,
Hear our prayer, and send, ah, send her!

"Dancing before thee, dark king, we implore thee
Look up from thy glory, and hear!

"Oh, hush! a thrill of coming life
Breathes through the stalks of the lilies fair.
Mighty Pluto hears our prayer.

"Sleep forsaking,
Nature's waking,
Birds are winging,
Sweetly singing;
Bees are humming,
Spring is coming,
Spring is coming, sweet the air."

The judges' award of points for music, words, and dance is a crucial moment in the Games, and the winning composer, poet and deviser of the dance are greeted with thunderous applause and cheers from their classmates as they receive the laurel wreaths from the high priestess, for the class victorious in this important event secures a long lead.

The contest in lyric poetry, "serious" and "comic," often produces some excellent verse, and a charming effect as a young poet in Greek draperies unrolls her scroll and declaims her ode. Interesting examples are the following lyrics, one winning a first place for the Class of 1915 in the 1913 Games, in honor of Demeter, the other, a first place for the Class of 1917 in the Games of 1914 in honor of Pan.

### To Demeter

(by Rhoda Erskine, 1915)

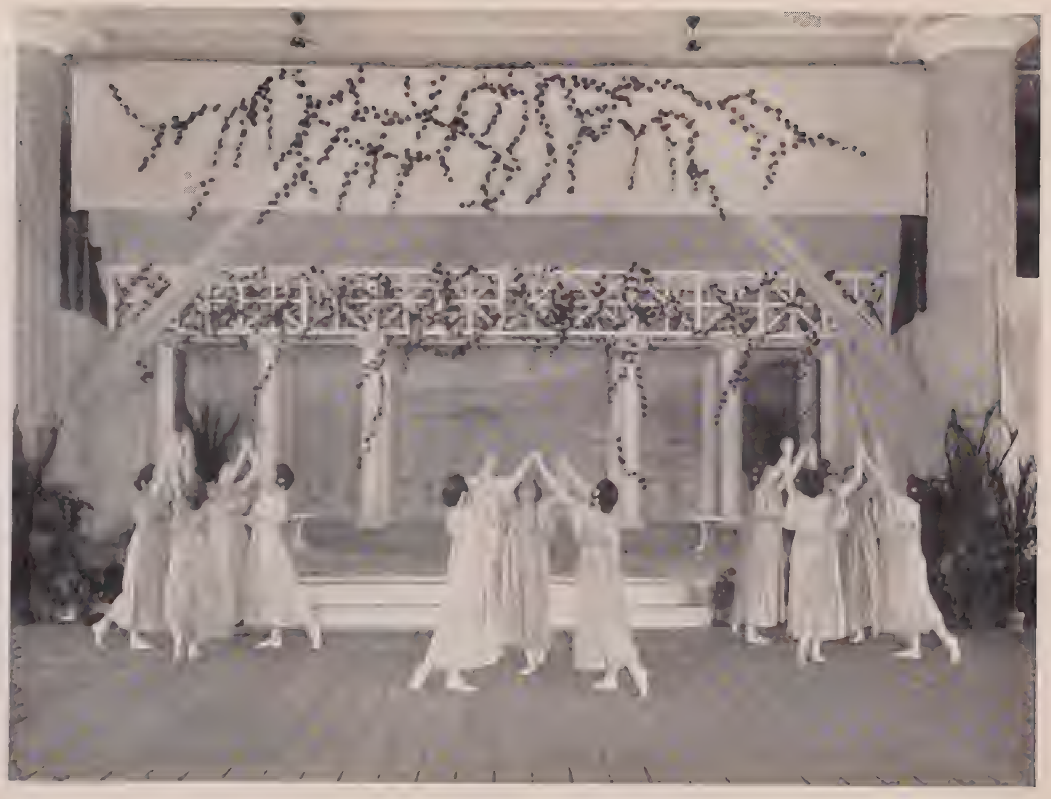
"Fair lies the harvest, fair the fostering sun
That smiles in ruddy splendor on the wheat;
But fairer still her beauty who from heaven
Spreads like a mantle over all the earth
Her loveliness. Was it not yesterday
We knew her for the wayward maid of spring,
Child of the sudden showers, dewy-eyed,

And fitful in her promised womanhood?
Through the long, lazy summer sped the days,
Weaving her robe of regal loveliness,
Until now Autumn lays the crown on all.
Men thought her lovely in her spring, but lo!
Lovelier now, and wiser, and more kind.
Mothering love sits shrined in her eyes,—
Eyes that could drown the sorrows of the world
And still show beauty in their limpid depths.
Poppies, for sleep, are twined in her hair,
Shadowy-black, but glinted here and there
With the wild glory of the burnished hills,
Swept into flaming beauty at her touch.
Softly she passes,—passing, casts behind
Some strange, warm beaüty, wild and strong and sweet,
To witness to her presence. Men behold,
And wonder, and are stirred, and understand."

## PAN

(by Babette Deutsch, 1917)

"Hedged in by skyey trees,
Over the stone and leaf-strewn earth,
Across the silver-shadowed streams,
In windy mirth,
Glad to have lost our way,
We wander thru the forest places
Like singing birds astray,
And glimpse between the boughs
Laughing, elusive faces.
O, sweet nymphs, be kind.
Whisper down the leafy wild as a woodmaid can,
Whistle down the wind,
Where may we find
The God? Where is Pan?
Echo answers: Pan?
On the wave-struck waste full-length he lies
And looks out sleepily.
His rough curls are in his eyes;
The murmurous sea
Beats forever in his ears.
The salt waves sob re-echoing crash and roar;
Only the foam-flecked deep he hears,



GREEK GAMES: THE DANCE

And sees only the wrack upon the shore.
(Sweet nymphs, be kind.)
Shaggy-limbed, earth-stained, deep-eyed,
Does he wander thru the wood,
Lonely, undescried,
By god nor man quite understood,
Earth-crowned, heaven-denied.
(Whisper down the leafy wild as a woodmaid can.)
By some unshaken pool
He harks the golden-throated birds
In the twilight cool,
Piping for them tenderer words
Than the sad bulbul.
(Where may we find
The god? Where is Pan?)
Where sunlight slowly filters down
To the dank earth, leaf-patterned, sweet with spring,
Amid grey boulders where the blue-bells swing
We wander in a dream.
Hark you! a broken laughter in the glen,
A plash within the ripple-ruffled stream,
Bright peering eyes,
A furry scampering,
A goat-hoofed god-gleam!
Echo, cry again.
The moving waters murmur in the dusk,
Still Dian rises, virgin-cold and slow,
Washing the waves with silver.
Low, ah, low,
The wind stirs thru the reeds, the river croons
Among the nodding grasses to the deep.
From a reed's core breathe wood and wave again
A half-Elysian music fused with pain.
The night-hum rises and the sky grows wan.
Rustle and song and long sigh of the sea—
O hark! the pipes of Pan."

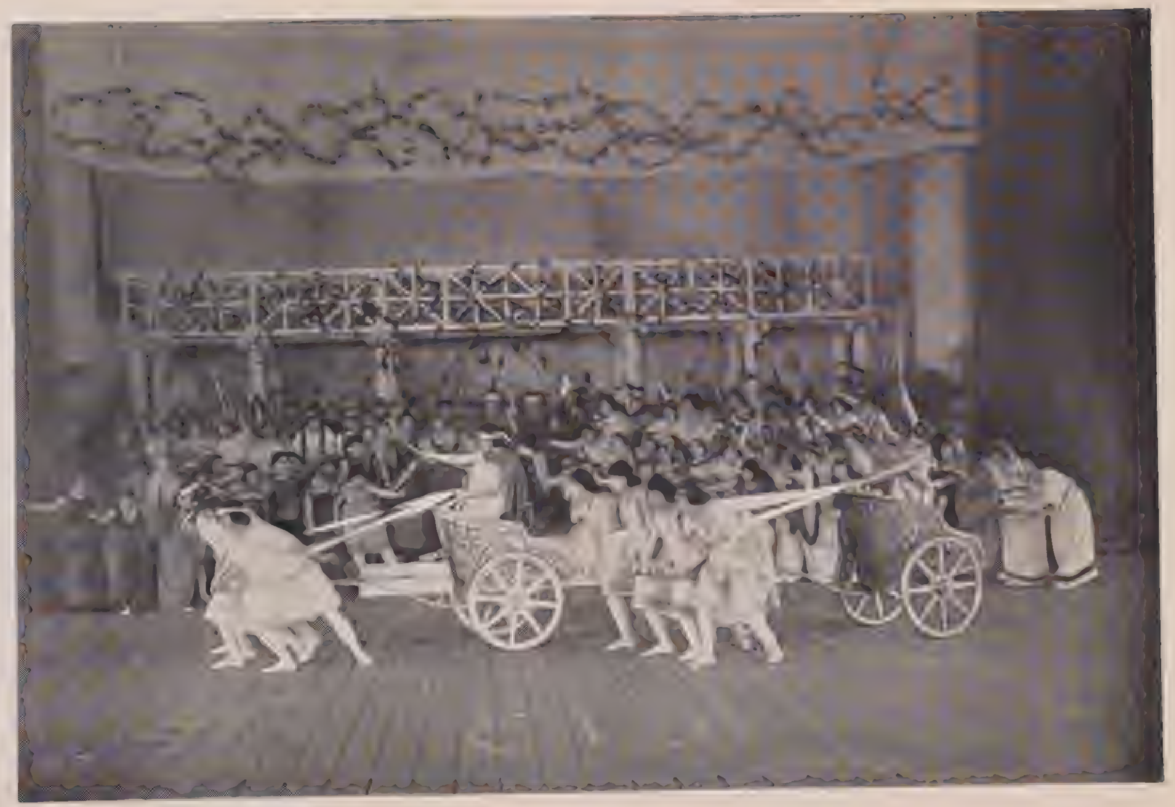
There are generally five or six athletic events, varying from year to year and not always adhering very closely to archæological accuracy. The young athletes are attractive and graceful figures, with their short *chitons* and filleted hair. They hurl the discus; they soar over the bars like swallows as they "hurdle for form"; they dodge through the great hoops in the "relay hoop rolling";

they appear to bear onward the light of progress as they dart about the ring in the "relay torch race," while the "lighters" at the corners jump up and down in uncontrollable excitement as they urge on their classmates. Last year they introduced a "chariot race for form," with two small chariots each drawn by four runners and driven by an enthusiastic charioteer. The effect was charming and the excitement intense, for the event was the last, the score up to that moment was a tie, and the winning freshman four gained, for the first time in the history of the Games, a victory for the freshman class.

The contests ended, the defeated class first cheers the victors generously, and then the victors cheer their gallant opponents. The two upper classes, who have been singing college songs between times and applauding their respective "sisters," cheer everybody, and the assemblage breaks up in a chaotic mélée of Greek draperies, caps and gowns, songs, cheers, marching victors and general uproar, invaluable for the purpose of "letting off steam."

It is difficult to express the charm and the value of the Barnard Greek Games. Archæologically, intellectually, poetically, and aesthetically, they are quite worthy of a college environment and are a peculiarly appropriate form of diversion for college students. They undoubtedly contribute towards keeping alive in Barnard the study and the love of Greek literature, and account partly for the considerable increase, of late, in our students of Greek. For one afternoon, at least, they lead some four hundred girls back into what seems a little like that bright and beautiful world of ancient Hellas, where, as we feel, bodies were all young and lithe and active, costume and setting blended in lovely and balanced beauty, the atmosphere was clear and untroubled, and the spirit of the world fresh and strong. It is as worth while, perhaps, as many a formal college course, to enable these young students to taste the joy of physical effort, of enthusiasm, and of beauty in sound, in words, in form, in color and in motion. Spectators of older years forget the inevitable crudities of the picture and are strangely touched by the spirit of youth which permeates the Games. It is good for us all to live for a few hours in that atmosphere of striving and enthusiasm, of beauty and youth.

VIRGINIA C. GILDERSLEEVE

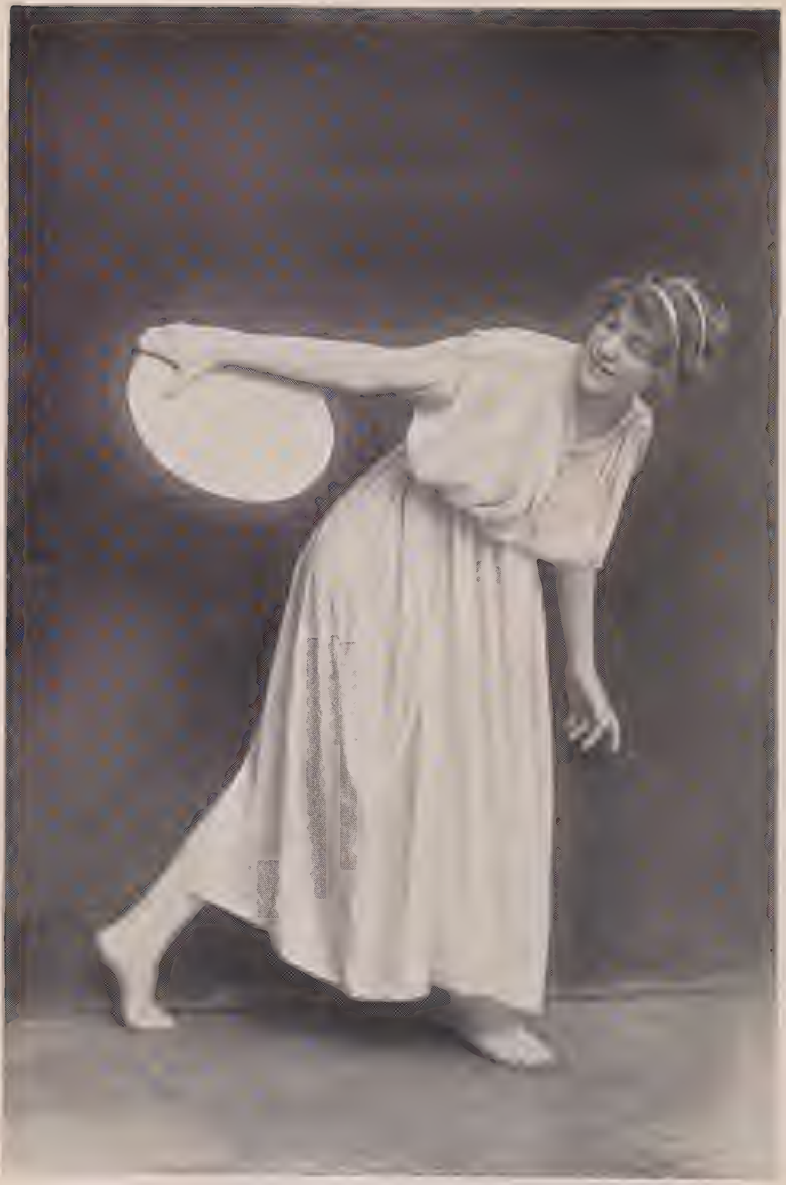


GREEK GAMES: THE CHARIOT RACE

# PROGRESS AND HELLENISM

PROFESSOR ROBINSON tells us in his brilliant and persuasive essay on *The Spirit of Conservatism* that when *The Advancement of Learning* was published, in 1605, "the idea of conscious progress was not only essentially new; it could only develop in an obviously dynamic social environment and with the growth of historical perspective. The Greek thinkers did not have it at all in its modern form, so far as we can judge." Carelessly read, this statement might convey the idea that its author dissents from the common view. The famous dictum of Sir Henry Maine, quoted by Gomperz at the head of his Greek Thinkers, declares that "to one small people . . . it was given to create the principle of progress. That people was the Greek. Except the blind forces of nature, nothing moves in this world which is not Greek in its origin." And after thirty or forty years of anthropological inquiry, in the course of which our notions of custom and progress have been under the spotlight, Mr. R. R. Marett can do no more than repeat (in his *Anthropology* in the Home University Library) that "to break through custom by the sheer force of reflection, and so to make rational progress possible, was the intellectual feat of one people, the ancient Greeks; and it is at least highly doubtful if, without their leadership, a progressive civilization would have existed today." The emphasis in Mr. Robinson's sentence should however evidently fall on "conscious"; he says elsewhere that "the Greeks were the first of all peoples, as far as we know, to use their minds freely," and this, we must admit, is a fairly noticeable bit of progress. But he contends that they progressed without knowing it. Very likely this is true. Assuming that it is, the question of the value of Greek studies is raised in a new form. What is the effect of contact with Greek ideas on the *conscious* spirit of progress? Mr. Robinson appears to think that it is not wholly helpful. He says of our boys and girls that "they are still so largely nurtured upon the abstract and the classical that we scarcely yet dare to bring education into relation with life." Of course he may be using the word "classical" without invidious reference to the Greeks; he may be thinking of the blighting part played by seven years of Latin grammar in a "classical" education. And those most interested in the spread of Greek ideas ought to be the readiest to admit that here too a mistaken method of education has operated to present them as classic in the worst sense of the term,—a sense for which the Greeks themselves have no responsibility. If our conception of Hellenism is based on the memory of the way Greek prose was taught at school, and capped by a glance at a doctoral dissertation on the views of Georgios Choiroboskos concerning epanalepsis, it is easier to agree with Mr. Robinson's implications than with those of Sir Henry Maine; but if we can get our minds off the schoolmaster and look back at the history of European civilization, we can find some pretty firm ground for Maine's rhetoric. Again, Mr. Robinson may be using "classical" merely as a synonym for "stereotyped," and in this case too he does not necessarily glance at the Greeks, for it is obviously posterity that has done the stereotyping. I am, however, driven to think that Mr. Robinson does harbor doubts about what the Greeks can do to help progress today because he says things like this: "Bacon thus undermines reverence for the past by pointing out that it rests on a gross misapprehension. Living before us, the ancients could not be expected to be our peers in knowledge or experience." Now it would certainly be curious if it were proved that a knowledge of the achievements of the men who invented progress were to-day inimical to progress. We all want progress of course, that is, the power to move, though we may not know as yet in what direction motion is desirable, and we are all concerned to know what sets of ideas augment our power of motion and what sets tend to keep us fixed.

The "weakening of authority" is, in Mr. Robinson's phrase, the concomitant of conscious progress; but authority in this sense did not exist in any hampering degree among the Greeks. It sprang up in Europe together with theology, a science constructed, it is true, from the débris of Greek terminology but not developed by the Greeks of the great time; *dogma* is a Greek word, but it has a barbarian content. And authority was perpetuated by the fact that barbarian Europe was conscious of a past, superior in every way,



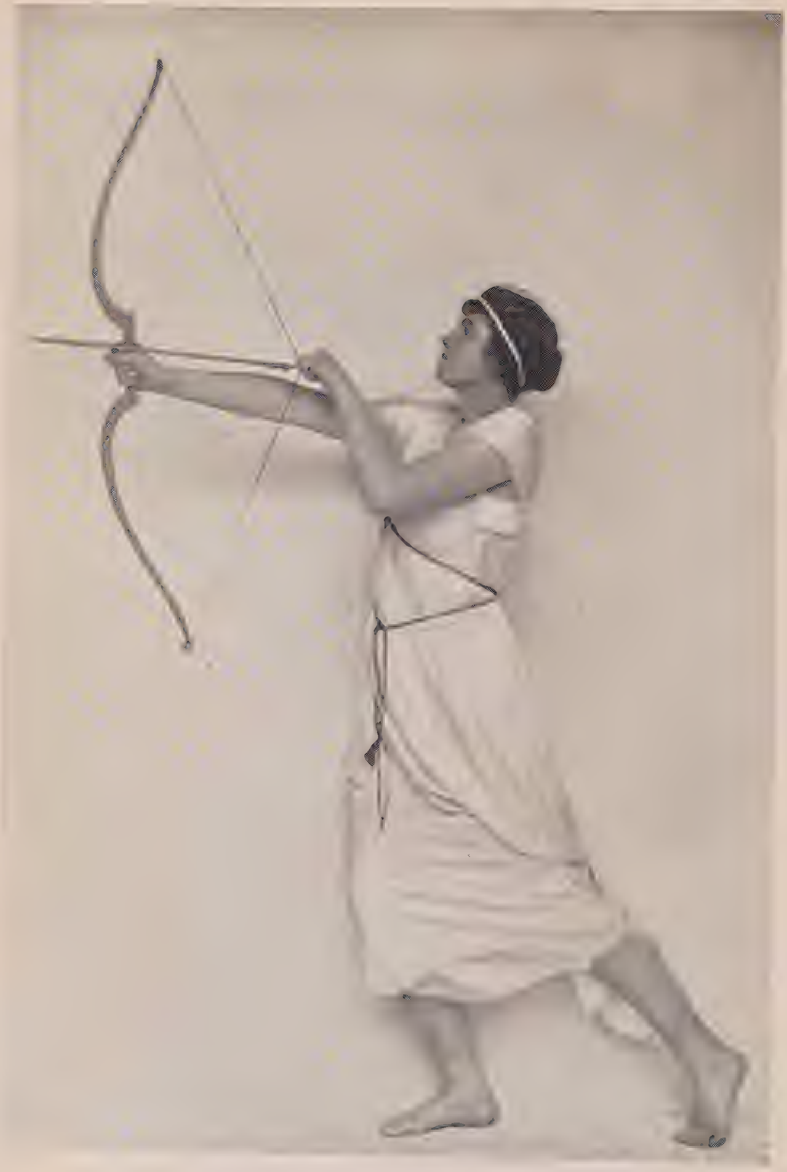
GREEK GAMES: DISCUS-THROWER

from which it had fallen away, while the Greeks knew that they were, so far, the best. We can hardly help concluding that if progress became conscious at about the end of the sixteenth century, it was because it had a hard crust of authority and dogmatism to break through, and that if Greek progress, while proceeding at a rate unequalled before or since, remained unconscious, it was because it met no such obstacle. This circumstance should not make their example useless. The Greeks, because they lived in the open air, were free from a number of our most homelike diseases; would it therefore be reasonable to say that our measures against, for instance, tuberculosis can learn nothing from theirs because ours are highly "conscious"?

As a matter of history, it seems hard to avoid the view that the two great periods of enthusiasm for Hellenism in Europe were periods of revolution, and that the two great systematized rejections of it were parts of programs of reaction. When all due abatements are made of the actual scholarship of the Renaissance, when we have admitted that Greek authors were known chiefly through not too adequate Latin versions and that Greek ideas were colored by the persisting mediævalism of the minds that received them, we are still confronted with the fact that the conscious progress of that period measured itself by its approximation to the ancients, expressed its own enfranchisement in terms of similarity to them, recognized as congenial whatever it could recover of the old world and originated the habit of thinking in what can be identified as ancient channels instead of in channels that we perhaps too loosely call mediæval. In fact the Renaissance seems to have acted on the sound biological principle that progress is not necessarily in the direction of novelty and that to attain some lost standard of the past may be the task of a long future.

The first great anti-classical reaction was set on foot by the Protestant Reformation. To Luther the Greeks were pretty nearly synonymous with vice, and this was a new view of antiquity, due to the excesses of the Renaissance. The middle age had marvelled at the virtues of the ancient world. Benn points out that men as different as Abelard and John of Salisbury and Roger Bacon unite in exalting pagan morals as an example to Christian emulation. To them the Socratic teaching was a counsel of perfection; the virtues of the great ancients (and even of the rank and file too, Abelard thought) could find no parallel in Christian times. But Luther reverted to the views and language of the epistle to the Romans, and from his day to this the Protestant conscience has looked askance at "paganism" as something that does not make for righteousness. It is well understood at present by Christian historians that the system of ethics by which we live is not the Sermon on the Mount but the great Stoic doctrines of the brotherhood of man, natural right and the development of the individual. And text-books of ethics (like that of Messrs. Dewey and Tufts) point out that the true contrast between Hellenism and Hebraism is the contrast between a free, scientific, progressive system, founded on the progressive needs of society, and a jural system founded on unchanging law and tempered only by casuistry. In a word, we owe our best conception of conduct to the Greeks. The general public, however, remembers chiefly that the Greeks had a queer lot of virtues and vices and that they held slaves. The lamented Nietzsche impressed upon the world the idea that the Greek state and Greek culture were profoundly immoral (from the philistine point of view, of course, not from Nietzsche's) because both rested upon slavery. And slavery to the modern mind means Uncle Tom. As a matter of fact, the Greek slave was differentiated from the slave of the cotton-field by five very important qualifications: his life and person were protected by law; he could own property; he could buy himself, and the hope of freedom was systematically encouraged; he was as well educated as a freeman of the same industrial class; he worked side by side with freemen and was indistinguishable from them in dress, manner and way of life. All labor, slave and free, was carried on in the open air and in short shifts. It was not until the silver mines at Laurium began to be worked in a feverish hurry that bad air, long hours and hopeless mental states acquired for a while and in exceptional circumstances the relation to labor which the machine established in the nineteenth century as the norm. It can fairly be said that an ancient Athenian might dwell among us indefinitely without learning, by observation simply, that slavery has been abolished.

But in spite of the repressive power of the Reformation, the



GREEK GAMES: HUNTRESS

classical spirit continued to work and to be identified with progress. One has but to speak the name of Montaigne to realize its enfranchising power and its historical affiliations. Its second great efflorescence was in the intellectualism, the humanity and the habit-breaking vitality of the eighteenth century. Habit-making, of course, is the practise not only of all men but of all protoplasm, while habit-breaking is the work of the few. Thus the degree of resistance offered by a group to its habit-breakers varies inversely as its power to advance. For hundreds of thousands of years, as Mr. Robinson shows by a striking figure, men lived on the earth without much more advance than we see among the lower animals today. Habit remained unchallenged. The earlier of those agglomerations to which we give the name of civilizations were incredibly fixed. Like the laws of the ant-hill, the laws of the Medes and Persians changed not. But the Greeks wore their habits with unparallelled ease, and, first—and last, so far,—of men, criticized them freely and changed them, somewhat less freely, at the behest of reason. That is of course what Sir Henry Maine means by making them responsible for all purely human progress, and that is why the second great attack on classicism was part of the reaction from the French Revolution. The Revolution had openly preached classicism, and the reaction therefore naturally and instinctively dealt with it as a dangerous thing. Classicism was made out to be the grandfather of the Terror through Rousseau and the grandfather of artistic sterility through David and Chenier. To Greek politics, morals and art the reactionaries opposed legitimacy, clericalism and romanticism. Fustel de Coulanges, dreading democracy and desiderating, like M. Faguet today, an aristocratic republic, wrote his great book, *La Cité Antique,* to show that "the ideas which the moderns have had of Greece and Rome have often been in their way. Having imperfectly observed the institutions of the ancient city, men have dreamed of reviving them among us. They have deceived themselves about the liberty of the ancients, and on this very account liberty among the moderns has been put in peril. To understand the truth about the Greeks and Romans it is wise to study them without thinking of ourselves. Thus observed Greece and Rome appear to us in a character absolutely inimitable; nothing in modern times resembles them; nothing in the future can resemble them." One of these objectionable ideas, a tenet of the Stoics, passed, with so many of their other tenets, into Roman law under the philhellene emperors, and marks (says Renan) *"le triomphe de l'esprit grec sur l'esprit romain";* in the preface to Ulpian's Digest it is phrased thus, "by the law of nature all men are free and equal."

In the long run, the nineteenth century worked out its own character by a new method altogether, and Herbert Spencer dismissed the classics and the romantics with a single gesture. It looked for a generation as if Hellenism were done for this time. Judged by a somewhat drum-head application of the utilitarian code, it was found wanting. Of course Greek letters and Greek plastic art—things which the Greeks themselves regarded as by-products—were still appreciated here and there, but the great Greek achievements in the theory and art of life as embodied in the city-state became a theme for academic historians only. And then another way of looking at life came into vogue which gave Hellenism its chance again. This way of looking at life is of course the social way. After fifty years and more of unadulterated *laissez-faire* a consciousness of solidarity began to modify ideas. Without always reasoning it out, men are more and more inclined to assume the social motive as the soundest rule of conduct. Self-development is felt to be purposeless unless it leads to increased usefulness. The head of the social procession shows signs of willingness to mark time if need be until the tail has caught up. Wealth must excuse its provenance by its destination. The arts must widen their appeal and extend their influence. Above all, the state must be for the citizens. Here is where Greece comes in again. When men look about for an example of a state in which wealth was not too unequally distributed, in which art was a matter of public concern, in which education was generally diffused and was organized for the purpose of creating good citizens, in which ethics was explicitly based on social sanctions, in which the citizens were the state, lived for it, believed in it enthusiastically, preferred its existence to their own, in which there was no systematic alternation of overproduction with unemployment, they are not driven to create a Utopia; they have the case of Athens ready to show that the thing can be done. It is therefore not surprising that at present persons interested in a simpler and sounder social life should be taking kindly to the Greek view. One such person advocates the retention of Greek studies in the Oxford curriculum on grounds that show how much water has flowed under the bridges of the Isis since a classical education had a chiefly snobbish value as a monopoly of the rich. "The time when plutocrats are attacking Greek," says Mr. C. T. Snow in his *How to save Greek at Oxford,* "is the time for socialists to take it up. . . . The education of the poor must be literary. And, of all literary studies, Greek has a special message for the poor man. It is the record of a high civilization, accompanied with few material wants. In a cold country, the Greek 'plain living and high thinking' cannot be imitated literally; but in spirit and *mutatis mutandis* it can be made our ideal." It would be odd indeed, he argues in effect, if there were a gain for democracy in forgetting "its native language."

It is certainly a pity that the Greeks used an alphabet which at present looks forbidding to the youthful eye, that our situation in an unilingual continent gives us an exaggerated notion of the difficulty of acquiring any foreign tongue, and that the ordinary teacher of Greek often manages to perpetuate the conviction that if Hellenism is not dead, it is at any rate buried. These circumstances, together with the Spencerian thesis that education should result directly in increased power to earn a living and reproduce the race, are hard on classical studies. And persons not consciously influenced by this set of considerations are sometimes afraid of the coercive power of the Greek genius. Nietzsche generally praises the Greeks for the wrong thing, but he makes a very shrewd remark on the resentment they sometimes inspire. He says, "Before the intrinsic dependence of every art on the Greeks was demonstrated, it had to happen to us as it happened to the Athenians with regard to Socrates. Nearly every age and stage of culture has at some time or other sought with deep displeasure to free itself from the Greeks, because in their presence everything self-achieved, sincerely admired and apparently quite original, seemed all of a sudden to lose life and color and shrink to an abortive copy." That the Greeks have left in many departments works which we cannot improve upon is not, however, to a candid mind a fair basis for criticism of their methods. It seems probable that their cult of perfection had no sinister views on posterity. And life has opened up new departments enough since their day in which genius may disport itself without the fear of being brought up short too suddenly by the arrival at perfection.

I should like therefore respectfully to suggest a corollary to Mr. Robinson's criticisms of our education, with which I am heartily in accord. He says, with the rhetoric of under-statement, "We make no consistent effort to cultivate a progressive spirit in our boys and girls. They are not made to realize the responsibility that rests upon them—the exhilaration that comes from ever looking and pressing forward." We might in my judgment add that we do not sufficiently furnish them with the encouragement to be derived from previous successes of humanity. We should never be weary of telling them that once upon a time a race of men of like passions with us succeeded in maintaining for several generations a society that was really social. We should not dwell much in general education on the grammatical forms of any particular people, but we should never let a boy or girl grow up without the stimulating knowledge that poverty, if everybody has a little and nobody has too much, has been proved an excellent basis for a high civilisation; and that the free use of the critical faculty, far from weakening the motives for right conduct, has led to the only sound ethical position, the position to which we are thankfully scrambling back today; that "the process of weakening authority" has no other ally so powerful as the Greek spirit; and that the modern progressive, whether he can read Greek or not, is at heart a Hellenist.

EMILY JAMES PUTNAM

# THE VOCATIONAL INTERESTS OF COLLEGE WOMEN

AMONG the charts which formed part of the recent educational exhibit at the New York Public Library, was one showing the increase in the number of women in professional pursuits between the years 1880 and 1910. Long and short horizontal bands indicated the changes that have taken place in some thirteen different professions. Extending almost across the chart were the bands showing the rapid increase in the number of women in the architectural group, in the ministry, and in literary and scientific pursuits. All the notable increases were in professions in which women formed an insignificant number in 1880. At the other extreme were the tiny spaces showing the increase in teaching and in the medical profession,—professions in which women were fairly well established in 1880. Comparisons with the rate of increase of the general population, and with the increase in the number of women of wage-earning age were appended to convey more vividly the unparalleled rapidity with which women have been going into professional work. It was a graphic epitome of the changing vocational interests of educated women. Through it one could see the greater variety of individual expression that college women are seeking, and the broadening of their vigorous interests.

A comparison of the relative importance of men and women in the professions shows that notwithstanding the tremendous gains in occupations other than teaching, women still play a relatively unimportant rôle in the professional field covered by the chart. For example, the number of women designers, draftsmen and inventors increased fifty-fold in thirty years, yet they formed only six percent of the total number in the group in 1910. The number of women clergy increased fifty-eight times, yet they formed only seven percent of the ministry in 1910. If teaching is excepted, the professional field for women is akin to that country where "however fast they went they never passed anything." One can hear the Queen saying, "Now *here* you see, it takes all the running *you* can do to keep in the same place." Only in the theatrical and teaching professions, and in the groups that include teachers, such as artists and musicians, do women form any significant proportion of the whole number. Compare for instance, the forty, fifty, and even eighty percent that they form in these groups with their two and three percent of architects and dentists, or the eight percent of physicians, eleven percent of government officials, and twelve percent of journalists. The statistical data suggest a tendency for women to find their place for some time to come in the older professions as teachers,—a profession which has been generally conceded to them.

But the field of work for educated women goes far beyond the limits indicated on the chart. The Census of 1910 reported over 100,000 women in professional and semi-professional service not included in the older and better defined professions. Modern social service, for example, is made up of a variety of occupations demanding special aptitude and training. The woman who likes to work with children is not restricted to the school room. There is playground work, or juvenile court work, or work with special types of children. The woman with a degree in medicine or law or architecture finds a great variety of uses for it besides the practice of an independent profession. Medical training opens the way to positions as resident physician in institutions for women and girls, clinical and laboratory assistantships in hospitals and sanitaria, or with physicians in private practice. Legal training is a valuable asset in probation work with women and children, and in the program of child-labor committees, consumers' leagues, and legal aid societies. Architectural training is required for success in landscape gardening, as well as for the discussion of architecture in journalism, lecturing, or teaching. The wide opportunity for women trained in these fields is a fresh and cogent reason for an unrestricted access to the training still denied them in many of the professional schools.

Scientific research, economic and industrial research and investigation make up another semi-professional field. The creation of great foundations like the Russell Sage, Carnegie, and Rockefeller has broadened greatly the vocational opportunities for women with preparation for advanced study, research, and educational work.

Philanthropic work is rapidly becoming a distinct profession requiring post-graduate study in special schools of applied science.

Besides a variety of administrative positions, it includes constructive work on social problems like housing reform, or the prevention of tuberculosis. Executive secretaries and directors of departments, investigators, statisticians, and many other types of trained workers are employed in this field.

A new and comparatively unexplored employment is opening to the expert in household science. There is the co-operative marketer who does the buying of food supplies for a number of families. There is also the professional shopper who does co-operative purchasing of commodities other than food. There is the newer and as yet not clearly defined position of housekeeping efficiency engineer. The head of a family recently wrote to a school of household arts: "I want to get the household problems approached in as practical a manner as an efficience engineer approaches a factory . . . we should be willing to pay a good fee to some one who could come into our home and work this out." Scarcely is the letter read when there comes another request, this time from a group of women asking for some one who would consider a permanent position as consulting expert on their housekeeping problems. Evidently there are big possibilities for trained women in handling the problems of the household intelligently and rationally.

Besides the demand from private agencies, there is an increasing call for the trained worker in various departments of the public service. We are seeing especially in our urban communities a very rapid development of the functions of the municipality. The school nurse, the visiting teacher, the playground director, have become established positions in our educational system. All the state institutions, such as orphanages, asylums, prisons, and reformatories, are seeking higher standards in their officers. Especially in the public health movement is there opportunity for research workers in public health laboratories as chemists or bacteriologists. There is also a large number of inspectors' positions,—inspectors of factories, markets, meat, and milk. Notwithstanding numerous exceptions, it may be affirmed that there has never been a better chance to do public work than at the present time. The effort to get a sound business administration of city and state affairs has shown itself in part by bringing more and more positions within the province of the civil service examination, thereby increasing the chances of the selection of the fittest candidate, and eliminating political influence as a requisite for public service.

The situation briefly resolves itself into a field of rich and varied service of a high order, a field of many rival opportunities for educated women. In this complex situation how is the college girl to determine her vocation? It is a practical question that faces a large proportion of every graduating class. A few can answer it easily. A special gift such as musical or other artistic talent eliminates doubt. Others are sure, even before they enter college, that they want to be teachers, or doctors, or lawyers, and their college work is shaped accordingly. The majority, however, only know vaguely that they must " do *something*," as they frequently express it, and they think they might as well teach.

Teaching, as everyone knows, is the occupation into which the college girl slips with least difficulty. Commercial agencies see to it that she does not finish her senior year without having received a personal letter, or at least a circular, calling her attention to positions open to her. Until very recently they have had no rivals. Then, too, teaching is the traditional work for the educated woman who earns her own living. No other possesses quite the same unquestioned propriety. Another advantage has been that the college has provided more definitely for the vocational needs of teachers than for those of any other calling. Six of the eastern colleges for women have undergraduate courses in education. Most of them offer two or more courses in the history and principles of education. One has as many as thirteen courses. Another has six, in two of which there is opportunity for school visiting. Still another has four courses, and a requirement of systematic practice teaching in the local high school. At Barnard, likewise, courses in educational psychology and in the history and principles of education are counted toward the A.B. degree—strange facts for those who fear that college education will become vocational. Have we been " talking prose without knowing it "?

The advantage of combining even partial vocational training with undergraduate work has of course a great economic value. The positions are rare for which a girl needs no other training than that which she gets as she works for her A.B. She leaves college equipped to earn her living as a teacher at once. In many other vocations from one to four years more of training are demanded, and this is often out of the question. Such extraneous attractions, rather than the call of the work itself, have made up its appeal for a great many girls,—just how many no one can tell, but we suspect the number is large. These considerations have had the more influence became college women have shared the common attitude toward their occupation, viz., that it is a makeshift to fill in the years before marriage. Such an attitude inevitably makes for less careful scrutiny of occupational capacity. It puts an undue emphasis upon the extent to which a vocation may contribute to personal convenience, and when it involves, as it often does, the doing of work which one dislikes, and for which one has no ability, there is the loss of all that makes work significant in human values. Whatever may be the future of teaching as a profession for women, it is a hopeful sign that more and more are turning from it and entering other fields. One can say this advisedly, for does it not mean a greater opportunity to realize the variety of capacity among women, and the consequent enrichment of the service rendered in both the teaching and the non-teaching ocupations?

Now there have always been a few who did not follow the beaten path to the schoolroom. They were the pioneers in the older professions, and later they blazed the way into the wide group of what we have termed semi-professional pursuits. In some instances it was only a sufficient dislike of teaching that sent them into other work. But there is reason to believe that the choice is becoming more and more one that consciously depends upon special fitness. They found places in the non-teaching occupations in a haphazard fashion, chiefly through recommendations by personal acquaintances. Sometimes a chance was secured by a bold, direct application, or by answering an advertisement. Once in a while it came through a college department or the college appointment bureau.

About four years ago, the Association of Collegiate Alumnae drew attention to the subject by appointing a standing committee on vocational opportunities other than teaching for the trained woman. About the same time, two appointment bureaus were established for women in non-teaching occupations. One was organized by the Women's Educational and Industrial Union in Boston, the other by a group of college women in New York, who named it the Intercollegiate Bureau of Occupations. The latter may almost be regarded as an auxiliary of the college,—supported and managed as it is by college women, with an advisory board of college executives, and consulted chiefly by college graduates.

The Bureau is both a business and an educational agency, though the latter character is the one emphasized and by far the more important. In carrying on its placement work a great deal of time is given to vocational counsel and direction. In the past year, fifty-eight different fields of employment were recorded, which called for some seventy different types of work. Such facts give some idea of the magnitude of the problem of advising applicants as to the positions open to them,— a problem that is frequently intensified by the uncertainty in the applicant's own mind as to her tastes and abilities.

The effort to help educated women to find their vocational niche is not put forth only when the applicant comes to the Bureau. Representatives from the Boston and New York Bureaus visit the women's colleges at regular intervals to bring the matter to the attention of the undergraduates. In this way many a girl is helped to prepare intelligently for what she is going to do after she leaves college. The changes in the curriculum that have been made in the last thirty years, notably in the sciences and in economics and sociology, have a direct vocational significance, and the managers of the bureaus who have become experts on vocations can point out the courses that bear upon individual types of professional work.

The value of this kind of expert advice from one group of college women to another can hardly be overrated. Coupled with the lively interest of undergraduates, and backed by the educational resources of college and university, there is every promise that it will lead women toward achieving in the wide and diversified field of professional service the leadership that they have already displayed within more restricted limits.

EMILIE J. HUTCHINSON

# OPPORTUNITIES FOR WOMEN IN JOURNALISM

IT is now two years and a half since the opening of the School of Journalism at Columbia University provided a new channel for the ambitions of college women. By offering at Barnard the first two years of the curriculum of the School of Journalism and by admitting the students who have completed such work at Barnard to the last two years of the School of Journalism, the university made the way clear for women to receive the same advantages as those so generously planned for men by the late Joseph Pulitzer. Journalism was added to the list of highly specialized vocations for college women. By this four-year course, a girl may have not only four years of a liberal education, but such advice and experience of a professional sort as will facilitate her entrance ito the world's work. That journalism has long had a powerful attraction for adventurous spirits is well known; but the way to it was dark. Now at last, in this college education, certain clues, instructions and warnings were to render the aspirant more likely to become, in the course of time, really a newspaper writer.

There are now at Barnard in the freshman and sophomore years, twenty-seven candidates for the degree of Bachelor of Literature. When allowance is made for casualties in the final two years of the course, one can see that there is as yet no danger that the country will be over-run with women-journalists. However, as knowledge of the course penetrates to those localities which boast no such training as the School of Journalism offers we may expect an increase of registration at Barnard by girls who are drawn by the B.Lit. Degree. Already the western and southern states are sending us fresh types, enriching our college life, and in turn, we hope, carrying back to the West and South an affection for Barnard. Some of these students are attracted to the B.Lit. course by the fact that, more nearly than the older B.A. curriculum, it approximates the tastes and interests of the present generation. History, economics, politics, statistics, a rapid introduction to the chief branches of science, are some of the requirements of the new School; the acquisition of stenography and typewriting, reading of French and German newspapers and of modern European literature, are among the achievements necessary. Even if one were never to become a successful journalist, such instruction in "International Relations" and " Party Government " would be well worth while.

For those who love the art of writing, the journalism course provides bounteous practice. Even those who do not write well, but who have a lively interest in the world, who are eager for a knowledge of cities, who have a vast enthusiasm for " Men, my brothers, men, the workers, always reaping something new"—these too are attracted by the opportunities of journalists. We may, they argue, by being journalists, see life.

Of course these aspirants go through many a trial before they graduate. Those who love writing are discouraged by the humble tasks they are at first asked to perform. There seems to be no room in the newspapers for spring reveries. By calling for an account of the spring fashions I alienated the affections of half my class. If they are asked for what they saw at the Straus Milk Station in the City Hall, they are likely to pass in a treatise on five methods of dealing with unemployment. It takes them some time to be reconciled to the idea that newspapers want facts, not fancies; people, not theories. But by the end of a year of "Journalistic Writing" such as we impose on them at Barnard, they are cheerfully writing very good interviews, accounts of expositions, reports of public speeches, biographies of contemporary men and women, and such assignments as can be performed in conjunction with a heavy program of history, economics and other subjects. They know, also, the salient characteristics of the best newspapers and periodicals, what is the " policy " of each, what sort of contributions they prefer.

No woman has as yet completed the combination Barnard and Columbia program leading to the degree of Bachelor of Literature. Two women were graduated from the School of Journalism last year, but they entered on advanced standing. So it is as yet hard to say what will be the success of a girl who has taken the whole journalism course as planned at Columbia. 1916 will probably see some such graduates. Their work will be followed with interest by those who are anxious to increase the possibilities of happy and useful careers for women. The writing immediately open to women on graduating from the journalism course may be unpretentious; but the habit of writing, the grasp of daily life, the knowing what people want to read about, is far more likely to make an author of books than either cloistered meditation or immersion in some profession. How many girls have graduated from college with the intention of becoming authors and, after a few amateurish attempts to storm the publishers, have given up writing altogether. On the other hand, young men who have the gift of the word frequently take to journalism when they graduate from college. Journalism has been the starting point of half our contemporary authors.

It is commonly thought that journalism is not a suitable occupation for women because of the irregular hours and nervous fatigue, because the foot of the ladder means reporting, and the top night-vigils and anxious excitement. In considering these traditions of newspaper life, however, people forget that in the ever-increasing scope of the newspaper, there are many things a woman writer can "cover" without harm to her health or her manners. Most papers devote space to news of schools, colleges, and other educational institutions; to the activities of organized charity, and of municipal aid, such as work-shops and employment bureaus; to proposed reforms in prisons, factories and stores; to obituaries of famous contemporaries; to articles compiled in a library to mark some historical anniversary or to elucidate some recent event; and to a great many "Human Interest" stories which have no news value, but please only by the writer's accurate observation of life. There is no reason why an intelligent woman should not do these things well. Even the usual field for women—fashions and society—could be made to have human significance. One has only to look at the "woman's pages" of the New York *Tribune* and the New York *Sun* with their discussions about children, their articles on interior decorating, their interviews with noted women, and the like, to realize that already the college woman has infused larger interests into old subjects.

Clare M. Howard

# WOMEN IN PREVENTIVE MEDICINE

IN 1859, fifty-six years ago, the doctors Elizabeth and Emily Blackwell, pioneers among American women doctors, in a plea for funds for the endowment of the New York Infirmary for the medical education of women, gave, as one of their chief arguments for the support of the institution, the actual need of the community for women physicians. They pointed out that the competent performance of the forms of work particularly under woman's supervision, such as the care of the home, the training of children, and various social and benevolent activities, were not matters of instinct, but required preparation and knowledge as much as the trades and professions; that a knowledge of physiological and sanitary science in its application to their daily lives was an urgent necessity since women must meet questions on these matters continually; that this special knowledge was largely in the hands of men physicians and too remote for women's uses; that statistics showed how far the comparatively few women trained as physicians in 1859 had already applied the medical knowledge they had to women's wants by equipping and establishing themselves as lecturers on physiology and hygiene for women. "As teachers, then," said the Drs. Blackwell, "to diffuse among women the physiological and sanitary knowledge which they need, we find the first work for women physicians."

In the outline of the curriculum of the proposed college, they provided for a professorship of sanitary science, "to give instruction on the laws of health and all points of public and private hygiene, as far as science and practical life have taught us with regard to them." Accordingly, in 1865, there was established at the Women's Medical College of the New York Infirmary for Women and Children the first separate chair of hygiene and public sanitation in any college. Even before this, however, the Women's Medical College of Pennsylvania had taken the initiative among colleges by making the teaching of hygiene a part of its course, with a woman, Dr. Anne Preston, as professor of physiology and hygiene.

Women have held this chair ever since. Among the seven or eight thousand women doctors in the United States, at least, it is safe to say that there is scarcely one who has not done or is not doing something in the way of instructing others on the means of preserving health, either by talks among small groups in schools, colleges, social centers, factories, etc., by contributing laboratory or clinical investigation, or by assisting in carrying on some of the various activities of the municipal, state or federal health work.

In research toward this end, Dr. Alice Hamilton is known for her work on flies as carriers of diphtheria and on industrial diseases, especially lead poisoning; Dr. Anna Williams, for a rapid method of diagnosing rabies; Dr. Pennington and Dr. Rabinovitch, for studies respectively in refrigeration and in tuberculosis. Dr. Williams has also organized in New York City efficient preventive work on infectious eye diseases. In organizations for public health, however, the work of women has not been confined to women physicians. It was Lady Montague who forced upon public notice vaccination for smallpox. No one deserves more prominence in work for the prevention of infant mortality than Lady Plunket of New Zealand. The leadership of New Zealand in this field is due to the cooperation of women in a country where men and women have an equal voice. The infant death rate of New Zealand has long been among the lowest in the world. The percentage of 1907, 8.9, was reduced to 5.1 per 100 in 1912. Compare this with New York State—12.9 per 100 births in 1912. The New Zealand Association is largely officered by women.

One of the youngest of our agencies for the promotion of child welfare is the Children's Bureau of the Department of Labor at Washington, D. C., created by an act of Congress in 1912. Its chief, Miss Julia C. Lathrop, has a woman physician as expert consultant. The object of the Bureau is, according to the Act, "To investigate and report upon all matters pertaining to the welfare of children and child life among all classes of our people and especially to investigate the questions of infant mortality, the birth rate, orphanage, juvenile courts, desertion, dangerous occupations, accidents and diseases of children, employment, and legislation affecting children in the several states and territories." Not altogether analogous but with the same object in view as the "Plunket Society" is the American Association for the Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality. Dr. Helen Putnam, of Providence, R. I., took an active interest in its organization in 1909 and was made Chairman of its section on Educational Prevention, with Professor Abby L. Marlott of the University of Wisconsin as secretary. Among the seven members of the executive committee are Dr. Putnam and Dr. Mary Sherwood of Baltimore. There are five women among the directors.

Possibly the most extensive public health propaganda work that comes in direct touch with the laity is that of the Public Health Education Committee of the American Medical Association. This was initiated, organized, and largely carried on by women physicians. At Atlantic City in 1909 Dr. Rosalie S. Morton, discussing a paper in the Public Health Section of the Association, called attention to the fact that while doctors deplored the ignorance of the masses on health topics, they made no concerted effort to remedy it. She suggested that the American Medical Association, the most influential medical body in the United States, was losing its opportunity. This was the spark that set fire to the fuel already seasoned for it, and before the meeting adjourned for the year the central committee of the Public Health Education Committee was formed with Dr. Morton as Chairman. Under her leadership the committee was soon organized with representative men and women in every state in the Union. By the end of the first year, there were about two hundred and fifty-seven women acting as chairmen of the various county and city sub-committees. A long list of health topics available for lectures before schools, churches, social centres, Y. M. C. A. clubs, etc., was published and distributed with lists of physicians in every community prepared to give these talks. During the first year of organization, 2,250 lectures were given under the auspices of the Committee to 102,575 people. By 1913, work was being carried on in the 48 States of the Union, in Alaska, Panama, Hawaii and the District of Columbia. By 1915, over 12,200 talks had been given to audiences aggregating over 700,000 people. In New York City activity is carried on under the County Medical Society and the Academy of Medicine during January to March each year. Usually twelve sessions are held, at each of which there are brief talks by both women and men. The topics covered are very wide and of the type that appeal directly to the public—domestic, educational, industrial, sanitary, problems of infancy and childhood, and of preventable diseases.

The best known municipal organization for the maintenance of public health is probably the New York City Health Department and particularly its Bureau of Child Hygiene. When in 1908 the activities relating to the health of children were removed from the various divisions in which they had developed in all the five boroughs of Greater New York, and their methods were coordinated and placed under the new division of Child Hygiene, a woman, Dr. S. Josephine Baker, was made its Director. This Bureau has grown to be the largest in the Health Department. It is unique of its kind and the most comprehensive in the world. Among its 712 employees there are 25 women physicians, 301 permanent nurses and 55 temporary nurses for summer work. The work of the Bureau is mainly prophylactic: it educates parents and prospective mothers in hygiene, sanitation and the prevention of disease; it examines and supervises children in day nurseries, institutions for dependent children, foundling asylums, and public and parochial schools, from the first school years to the issuing of employment certificates according to the child labor law. Secondarily, so far as is necessary to the preventive work, it corrects certain diseased states, such as minor skin affections, eye infections, defects of teeth, and mouth breathing due to adenoids and enlarged tonsils. As an offshoot of the work of the Bureau, there was formed, in 1912, the Babies' Welfare Association of New York, with which are affiliated about eighty agencies dealing with child life. This association maintains an office at the Department of Health and acts as a clearing house with the object of economizing effort and avoiding duplication of work. It is governed by an executive committee of which Dr. Baker is a member. As a result of the Health Department's work in conjunction with all the other agencies, it is interesting to note that the mortality of babies under one year in New York City has been reduced from 144 per 1000 births in 1907 to 94.6 per 1000 in 1914, a lower infant death rate than that of any other of the largest cities in the United States or Europe.

Women are contributing their share with men to raising the standards of health all over the world. If there is any difference as to the character of their work, it is chiefly in the point of view. Women are naturally more interested in the problems of maternity and childhood, the hygiene of the home and the family, and then the outside environment as it bears on these. The large health and prophylactic problems which men deal with tend more toward sanitation and the correction of civic evils, such as water and milk conditions, sewage disposal, frontier quarantine, housing conditions, mosquitoes, etc. On the whole women take a more personal and individual view. The solution of our health problems, therefore, demands the cooperation of men and women.

ANNA I. VON SHOLLY

# THE INTERRELATION OF THE SCIENCES IN COLLEGE COURSES

THE field of science is now so wide that no one person could possibly cover the whole, and specialization in the various parts of it has become so intensive that it seems presumptuous for anyone to enter upon phases other than his own. Probably there are only three classes of people who could be induced to attempt a survey of the various sciences in education: the philosophers, who think of themselves as in a sense at the hub of the wheel, the sciences revolving around them; the specialists in education, whose concern is with all methods of education; and the geologists. It is in the last category that I belong, and my apology for trespassing upon the preserves of fellow scientists must lie in the composite nature of "my science." It is impossible to go far in geology, or to teach it satisfactorily, without invading all the other sciences.

To the thoughtful student of the development of knowledge there can be no more illuminating example of the eternal unreason of humanity than that of the history of the subdivisions of science and of the placing of them in our schools and colleges. All science treats of some form of matter and energy, and all science is fundamentally one subject. In the days of the Greeks all sides of science were attacked by everyone who had an interest in any of them, and the same names are found at the beginning alike of chemistry, astronomy, and biology. It is a far cry from Aristotle to the carefully marked out departmental boundaries of to-day. With the multiplication of known facts subdivision was inevitable because the capacity of the human mind has a limit; but the necessity for subdivision by no means includes the necessity for hard and fast boundaries. Our present university method of fixing arbitrarily the exact boundaries of each science is a bad thing for the teacher, for the student, and for the investigator. It is often the borderland in which the methods of two subjects can be utilized that forms the most illuminating field of study. The border zone between geology and economics is of the utmost significance, particularly at the present time. A most valuable university course might be offered which should treat of ore deposits, conservation of natural resources, problems of transportation, irrigation and water supply, and so on from the points of view of both subjects.

If the placing of the boundaries is arbitrary, complete lack of logic is to be seen in the development of the various lines which have received attention. The needs of man, supposed or real, with an occasional impetus given by the work of some great man, have hitherto determined the directions in which science evolved most rapidly. The superstitions of the middle ages were responsible for the growth of alchemy and of astrology. In more recent times although the unpractical nature of astronomy has pushed it to a subordinate place, alchemy has grown into chemistry, metallurgy, and mineralogy,—the first two of especially practical value to man. The growth of geology has been greatly accelerated by mining. The progress of physics is inextricably bound up with the invention of useful machines. Modern zoölogy owes its importance in part to the stimulus given by the work of Darwin, in part to its close relationship with medicine. The result of a development at the same time accidental and utilitarian is the fact that many parts of the field have not yet been touched upon.

As we see them today, the various sciences are alike in that they all treat of the material world objectively. They aim at the accumulation of observed facts, at the deduction of inferred facts, at the duplication of natural processes by experiment, at the production of generalizations and the building up of laws. They all postulate that every process has its results and every result its causes. The subject matter and the aim are fundamentally the same in all, but the methods of instruction differ notably in the different sciences.

Some of the sciences have subdivisions, which are separate points of view of the same subject, and in many cases these points of view are the sciences of the future. Zoölogy, for example, may be regarded from the various standpoints of morphology, physiology, embryology, phylogeny, heredity, adaptation, histology, and possibly several others. Botany has similar sections. Geology regards the earth as a whole from a series of viewpoints which closely parallel those enumerated above, with the additional fact that it reads the past in the light of the present, thus building up history. Chemistry and physics are as essentially one subject as are morphology and physiology, or lithology and dynamic geology. In each of these pairs the emphasis on the one hand is on the material, on the other on the energy. And when we consider the other subjects which as they are taught are called sciences we find that they either consist of many dissimilar parts which might logically be separate sciences, or that they have already been split off from some other science.

In considering the proper place of the various sciences in the college curriculum the question of method is fully as important as that of subject matter. Although methods vary everywhere with the personality of the teacher, there are certain conventions which have sprung up in each science and which are to be seen in various degrees in all colleges. Our concern here is with the elementary college course which presupposes no knowledge of science, lasts one year, meets for about two lectures and two to four hours of laboratory work weekly, and aims to supply the needs of the average student. It is assumed that the average student is a person who does not bring an overwhelming interest to the subject, and one who may or may not later specialize in science. The problem is, which sciences are the most important if only two are to be studied? Which of these should come first if several are pursued? These questions are by no means easy of solution, but it is hoped that the following brief summary may throw some light.

Elementary work in physics is inextricably interwoven with mathematics. This springs from the fact that mathematics is increasingly important in physical investigation. But although mathematics is all-essential to the physicist, it is so often a source of discouragement to the student that more than one potential physicist has turned to other fields because his first enthusiasm for sound or electricity has been lost in a maze of formulæ. The average student brings to physics a certain amount of curiosity as to electric lights, gasoline engines, water power, and many matters of every-day life. He frequently gets from his course a series of equations which he cannot visualize, and whose connection with practical matters is often not apparent. Electroplating is a fascinating occupation which can easily be done in a laboratory; it becomes shorn of all interest if instead of freely experimenting with it the student must memorise Faraday's laws, and learn some such formulæ as that of Ohm, $I = E/R_i + R_e$. In the history of physics the greatest discoveries have come without mathematical assistance, and the invention of machines has frequently preceded the mathematical interpretation; but in our courses the mathematical side is paramount. The laboratory work in physics requires great precision of observation. It trains in the accurate making of measurements of various kinds. As taught now, physics is very important for the would-be scientist, but for the average student its value lies mainly in the handling of machines and in the training in accuracy.

Astronomy has an association with mathematics that is older than that of physics; in investigation it is, if possible, more mathematical than physics. Nevertheless, the elementary courses in astronomy are usually not overburdened with mathematics. The use of the telescope by an astronomer is a matter of the greatest precision and accuracy; but as a rule students are not asked to compute orbits, or to do more than learn the methods of computation. This method has the advantage that the student's natural curiosity is fed and encouraged and that the facts which he learns are matters of real interest to the average person. The student who does not go beyond the first year will remember with interest what the moon looked like through the telescope, long after the formula expressing the rate of acceleration of a falling body has passed into the maze of unpleasantnesses soon to be forgotten.

Since the discovery of radium, chemistry has undergone a great change. The problem of radioactivity and of the transmutation of substances is not as a rule introduced into the elementary course, but its effect is to be seen in that the atomic theory is sometimes left out. The chemist of today has a hard problem to solve; for if he attacks the question of the ultimate constitution of matter, he may go far beyond the comprehension of most of the students, while if the theoretical side is omitted the course becomes little more than the enumeration of the properties of elements, and the writing of reactions that mean very little if shorn of their atomic interpretation. The laboratory work in chemistry gives the best training in manipulation that there is in science, but only too often it gives little more. Printed directions to add so much of something to so much of something else, put in a test tube and boil, may be accurately followed with nothing but cloudiness as a result.

Until quite recently zoölogy and botany were mainly morphological in their elementary work. An endless succession of plants or of animals was presented to the student with a table of classification in the background. At present physiology and to some extent embryology are introduced, the emphasis being laid on processes and development. The laboratory work is mainly observational, the records being made in the form of drawings. The evergrowing experimental aspects of both botany and zoölogy rarely find their way into elementary courses. Experimental work in these subjects is always of the greatest interest to those students who persist long enough to reach it. There is nothing in the experiments themselves that makes them too hard for a first-year course, and they would add greatly to the interest of the average student.

Psychology is such a newcomer among the sciences and in our curricula that it is impossible to generalize concerning it. It has few if any textbooks, and is still developing its method. This means that in a sense it is easier than the other sciences, since there is a smaller mass of material to be mastered; but on the other hand investigation can be begun sooner, and even first-year students can occasionally begin experiments which may become real contributions to knowledge.

The subject matter of geology is of every-day interest to students. The origin of ore deposits, of coal, of harbors, questions concerning water-supply, the formation of mountain ranges, or change of climate,—all have a natural human interest. It is the only science at present widely taught in which field work is an absolute essential, and the training given in this way is of a value which should place it on a par with experiment and laboratory observation. Field determinations of the relationships of rocks and the plotting of the observations in the form of a cross section showing relationships below the surface are a unique mental discipline. Incidentally an intelligent understanding is developed of the causes upon which differences in landscape depend. It is the only science which has for one of its main objects the reading of the past history of the world and so is the only one that properly emphasizes the immensity of past time and the greatness of pre-human evolution, continental as well as biological. In the teaching of geology it is customary to cover all sides of the subject in the first-year course, including the past history of the earth from the nebulous stage to man. The continual variety of subject matter prevents the pall of boredom from sinking upon the student, and keeps him in an ever alert and expectant frame of mind. There is also an experimental side to geology; experiments on glacier motion have been made with blocks of ice in frigid laboratories; rocks have been crushed and metamorphic structures produced in huge machines; and imitation volcanoes and mountain ranges have been made. But as yet this belongs in the realm of investigation, and its only part in the grade of course we are now considering lies in "before and after" lantern slides. Geology is overburdened with an appalling nomenclature, which, together with its lack of the possibilities of experiment, detracts from its otherwise perfect suitability for the position of a first science to be studied. Being more composite than any of the others, and being less defined in its boundaries, it naturally has more variety in methods of teaching. There are college courses in geology that comprise lengthy lists of names, names of rocks, of ages and of fossils. The accompanying laboratory work is usually entirely observational and descriptive, and the whole course trains only memory. In the attempt to escape from the dullness of such a course many geologists have eliminated most of the names and in their teaching emphasize the processes. In some cases so much has been eliminated that little of value is left. So as we see geological courses in various colleges today, in some cases the work is very hard and uninteresting, in others it is a "snap."

It is one of the apparent anomalies of our subject that palaeontology should not be regarded as a single science. Invertebrate palaeontology, being part of geology, is to some extent taught in first-year courses in geology, and hence may occasionally be studied by freshmen. Vertebrate palaeontology is part of zoölogy, and does not make its appearance until the second or third year of graduate work. Palaeobotany is a separate science and is rarely taught at all. This springs from the fact that most of the fossil invertebrates are marine and that they are of practical use in identifying the ages of the rocks. All fossils ought to be studied from the standpoint of evolution, the place of evolutionary palæontology in the college course being after geology, zoölogy, and botany. One of the borderlands between sciences which has as yet received no attention in eastern colleges in ecology. This subject is related to botany, geology, and geography; it deals with the relationships of plant societies to soils. It is an ever-growing subject in the West, interest in it springing in part from its close relationship with agriculture and with forestry. Geography is another science neglected in the east but developed in the west. Both in the direction of the understanding of land forms and on the economic side it has an ever-widening subject matter and an ever-growing support. Geography and ecology belong with geology in that their subject matter is of natural human interest, and in that field work is a normal part of instruction.

To those who, like myself, had their training during the period when the sciences were struggling for expression, there must be a great disappointment in finding, now that the sciences are established, that they have so little hold on the rising generation. In the old days when the classics, English essays, and mathematics vied with each other in their daily toll of drudgery, the first call of spring would send every born naturalist away from the classroom and out to the woods and the ponds. Aquaria with frog's eggs and herbaria with young spring plants became ornaments of one's bedroom, while at all seasons minerals and rocks ousted one's neckties from their boxes. But now that science has come, our students want "credit" if they go on a "field trip," and developing frog's eggs, from an ever-recurring wonder, has become part of the drudgery. Even as we escaped the authoritative teaching of the past, so our students escape from the scientific laboratories—in order to teach settlement classes and to enter social-service work. Has human interest changed? Or are the sciences of less significance than we thought?

Probably human interest has not changed during the last twenty years, but developed. The sense of civic responsibility has come into existence and the college is still behind the times. Our B.S. degree in Barnard College represents the ideal of the present generation of mature scientists. It is what we who teach wanted and could not get. For the needs of the rising generation we must bring our work into a closer relation with their interests and their ideals. Our chemistry must take up food analysis, our physics deal with labor-saving machines, and so on through all the subjects, if science is not to sink to the level of coercion from which it raised the curriculum.

There are points of human contact in the subject matter of all the sciences; but, as has been already suggested, these are not brought out in our usual methods of instruction. These methods one and all leave out of account a very important zoölogical principle. Since the life history of the individual repeats the life history of the race, so our education should begin with the side which is historically first, namely the economic or humanistic side, and lead up to the less practical and more intellectual. I do not mean that mining engineering should precede geology or agriculture precede botany, but simply that the human application should receive more and earlier attention than it usually does. If this were done, the student of literary or linguistic tastes would oftener carry away from science something of real interest, long to be remembered.

It is obvious that the methods employed have in mind primarily the imparting of knowledge. In the mind of every scientist there is the belief that his subject is the most interesting, and there is an ever optimistic and ever disappointed belief that more than about two percent of the students in each elementary class will survive to become specialists. It is for the two percent that the courses are planned, and the courses as we now have them are all excellent for those who intend to specialize and who wish to progress as fast as possible. Since the physicist-to-be must master mathematics, it is far better that he should plunge quickly into the really important and difficult phases of the subject. The zoölogist-to-be has the best possible foundation if he begins by making countless drawings of the systems of digestion, respiration, circulation and so on of many animals. But where does the student come out who wishes to specialize in English or in Greek and who is required to take two sciences? And how do these courses suit the needs of the vast majority, those who do not know where their greatest interests lie, nor what they will do after college is over? It would serve the interests of the ninety-eight percent and do little damage to the two percent if the emphasis throughout were less on the subject matter and more on the spirit of research. It is possible to develop any science by the Socratic method. Assigned reading can be discussed by asking the questions that are not answered in the text, but that might be thought out. Laboratory work of all kinds takes on a new interest if after the observations are made questions are asked that lead to original deductions and generalizations on the part of the student. Naturally the teacher must guard against arbitrarily correcting mistakes, and against answering the questions in such a way that the results can be learned by heart.

The great function of science in the college course should be to stimulate inquiry into the facts of the material world, and to encourage the pursuit of the questions asked to a conclusion by laboratory methods. A one-year college course has done its work if at the close the student's mind is full of questions and if he has a glimmering of an idea as to how to proceed to answer them. It makes very little difference what the questions are; the all important thing is that they should be asked and that the answer should be sought, not in the theoretical writings of Aristotle or Copernicus or Lamarck, but in observation, experiment and reasoning.

The ideal science course should clearly separate matters of fact from matters of inference and these in turn from matters of hypothesis. A certain amount of memorizing of facts is necessary as a foundation, but beyond that there should be a clear-sighted and open-minded discussion of possibilities. I once made a most discouraging round of visits to the science classes of some of the schools of New York City. I listened to a young man expounding the nebular hypothesis in such a way as to imply that he had been present during the early stages of earth consolidation. He was apparently in complete ignorance of all that has been done in the last ten years in the way of disproving that hypothesis and of building up another. His class recited from a text book; there was no discussion of why and wherefore; he trained nothing but memory, and that by learning facts that are at best half true. Another class was studying cyclones under the apparent assumption that the teacher lived in the upper air and so had first hand knowledge of the supposed facts he was "drilling." A class in botany was pulling flowers to pieces while a very young and much frightened teacher tried to induce them to make drawings of pistils and stamens within certain printed red lines in specified note books. No explanation of the functions of the various parts of the flower was forthcoming and a question as to why orange seeds do not sprout inside the orange was deferred "until next time." After the class the teacher explained to me that she had nothing to do with "all that," that the class recited from a text book with another teacher, that her function was only to get the drawings done, and that her promotion depended upon the accuracy and neatness of the drawings and upon keeping them within the red lines. A class in "advanced zoölogy" was taking notes on a lecture which they were afterwards to learn. The main point of the lecture was that *balanoglossus* is the ancestor of the vertebrates. No mention was made of the fact that this is a theory and that there are at least three other theories fully as probable. It was all "just so" and the students were to learn it in precisely the spirit in which the youth of my day had to master gerundives. Questions as to whether *balanoglossus* was a worm, and as to how it happened that it and all its descendants were alive at the same time, were suppressed with a reprimand. This teacher was highly valued as a disciplinarian, and that is precisely what a scientist ought not to be. There were other classes better conducted, but on the whole they all exhibited the same defects. Either the discipline was so strict that all interest was eliminated, or the emphasis was on the mere details of laboratory performance with no understanding of its purpose, or hypotheses were taught as facts, or so called "laws of nature" were learned from text books.

These teachers missed the greatest opportunity of science teaching, the awakening of the spirit of research. For this they substituted a few facts and a few hypotheses learned by heart. As education their work was of less value than a corresponding amount of effort spent on Greek. The classics once mastered remain the same, while science is ever changing and it is better never to attempt science at all than to learn it by heart, missing the fact that it may have grown out of all recognition in ten years. Fortunately, such glaring errors are not found in the colleges, though even there some elementary science courses train little more than memory and leave the student at the end of his first year with an entirely blank mind as regards research.

Science courses in colleges have two distinct functions: first, that of arousing the interest of the average non-scientific student, for whom the first-year course should be complete in itself, should include as many sides of the subject as possible, and should, if possible, include observational and experimental laboratory work and field work; and secondly, the laying of the foundation of the scientific method which can later be used by those who do go on. This method should not be training in manipulation alone, nor work with machines alone, nor drawing alone, nor field work alone, but as much variety among all these as the subject allows, with ever present the purpose of the whole operation. The method of investigation can be used even in the beginning, and it is of far greater service to all students than the memorizing or mere facts.

It is the investigator's method of work, then, that should be taught and for this purpose any science will serve. There is nothing in the subject matter of physics and chemistry that makes them more fundamental than the other sciences. They owe their important place in our curricula first of all to historical precedence, and secondarily to the fact that as taught at present they alone are experimental. But as we have seen, there is an experimental side to any science and there is no logical reason why it should not be introduced into the elementary courses in other subjects. Of course scientists should all know something of physics and chemistry, but there is no reason why these subjects should precede the other sciences nor why they should be required of the non-scientists. Any science can be an introduction to any other science, and if taught from the research point of view they all illuminate each other, whichever happens to come first. For the average student of undefined or of distinctly unscientific tastes the sciences should all be on an equal basis as regards possibility of choice.

There are, however, certain practical difficulties when choice is entirely free. If freshmen in their first year of science are in the same class with older students in their second, third, or fourth science, the difference in mental development and in knowledge is so great as to make it practically impossible to set a pace suitable for all. It appears, then, that certain ones should be selected as "first sciences" which can be taken by any one, and that the selection should be made according to the wishes and the methods of the instructors. Such "first sciences" would then be largely taken by students in their first years, and in them the scientific method should be taught and the technicalities of the subject reduced to a minimum. The other sciences which follow would naturally be more solid as to subject matter.

The point of view in this paper has been entirely general without reference to any particular college. The questions involved seem precisely the same for women as for men. The only difference to be noted is that since more women than men become school teachers, they will tend to specialize in those sciences which are taught in schools. That, however, is a minor point and should be disregarded entirely if we regard the college course not as preparation for life, but as part of life. Science should then implant in the minds of its students the original thinker's attitude towards all the affairs of life.

IDA H. OGILVIE

# BARNARD UNDERGRADUATE VERSE

THE life of a college is incommunicable by statistics. A few New York young women going to college twenty-five years ago in a brown-stone house on Madison Avenue might get schooling; but evidently they could not develop college life. Evidently from what? We still deceive ourselves with externals. College life was developed so rapidly in Barnard that by the time it found proper externals at Morningside it was already a precious tradition. A clear proof of spiritual vitality in American life is this infallible kindling of communal ardor through common liberal studies. In village or city, in the hills, on the prairie, by the sea, it has been generated so spontaneously, so surely, as to furnish clear evidence of the presence among us of the things unseen. American college youth warrant American faith. Each college community cherishes the happy hallucination that its own college spirit is a warmer ardor or a truer fellowship or a finer blend of traditions, and indeed the confidence often has a basis in some such strong communal trait as Yale energy or Harvard inquiry; but the truth is that each American college community has its fire because all are lighted from the same torch.

The figure of the torch is just because its suggestion is spiritual. The kinship of the initiated felt by alumni and alumnae can never be explained in terms of fact. That Barnard has been for a quarter-century, and is now, *alma mater,* we need not try to prove by compilation. Nevertheless we may confirm our own faith from records not often enough estimated at their full significance. What the life of a college is really, that is inwardly, may be read best in undergraduate verse. Here is a record, imperfect doubtless, but at least as significant as any other printed evidence. College verse tells us what students are set to read and what they read for themselves. Its imitation is eloquent of the literary preoccupations of the community; its originality is highly suggestive of the direction of community thought by born leaders.

Such a poet in Barnard's eighth class entered college in the first year of *Morningside,* one of the most brilliant magazines ever conducted by undergraduates; and for three years her verse appeared there and in the *Columbia Literary Monthly* with the verse of John Erskine. Among worthy colleagues, these two young poets showed that higher ambition and that truer sense of college aspirations which made them leaders of poetic endeavor. Miss Gillespy's first verse, *My Room,* has a more documentary interest. By the end of this year she showed much stronger inspiration and control in *Seaward.*

### MY ROOM

These are my walls that open on the world,
And these my doors that lead to every age;
This bit of tiling saw Spain's glory furled;
Here rounds the splendor of the Attic stage.

Here Omar sings his creed of wine and song,
And Swinburne sings his song without a creed;
And Mary, half-rebelling, triumphs long,
And Echo's love climbs with itself for meed.

Plato and Goethe greet as greet the gods,
Browning and Shakespeare meet as man with man,
Isaiah thunders loud, and Homer nods,
And a high Christ fulfils a half-seen plan.

And here, at home, and clad in modern guise,
Dwell Faith and Doubt and Death and Life and Love,
And Evil masks as good, in ancient wise,
And Soul bewildered calls on Truth above.

Futures are raffled for and kingdoms fall;
The long-dead ages listen, look, are still—
Only My Lady Lisa on the wall
Smiles as the gods, who know both good and ill.

—Jeannette Bliss Gillespy, '00, *The Morningside,* March 15, 1898.

### SEAWARD

Inland my life is set
In the tranquil hollows of valleys,
The calmness of river-reaches,
The quiet of daily labors;
But sometimes into the stillness
Comes a resonant murmur,
A voice as of many waters
Thunderous, vibrant;
And my soul leaps out in its answer
To the summons of the sea.

Sometimes in darkness
And distance of sleep I hear it,
And I wake exultant,
Thrilled with the roar of breakers.

So I think it shall be once—
I shall wake in the darkness,
Hearing the summons far inland,
And shall rise and shall follow
Far down the line of the river,
Far through the darkness,
Hearing the roar of the breakers
Nearer and nearer—
Feeling the wind on my forehead
Freshen and dampen—
Breathing the salt of the ocean—
Till at length through the darkness
Gleams the white line of the breakers
Rushing and glooming to meet me.

So shall they wrap me,
So shall they carry me seaward,
Into the night and the darkness
And the tumult that dies into silence.

—Jeannette Bliss Gillespy, '00, *Columbia Literary Monthly,* December, 1898.

The following sonnet gave its title to a little collective volume[1] which shows more range and variety than can be exhibited by quotation.

### THE EASTWARD ROAD

Let us go on along the eastern way.
Behind us flares the sunset's gold and rose,
Before us, in the dusk that no man knows,
The level high-road stretches straight and gray.
Let us go on to meet the moon's first ray
Above the eastward path that twilight shows;
Let us go onward past the moon, till glows
Across the eastern hills another day.

Though through the dark mad shapes go scurrying by—
Reason and Rapine, Power and Unrest,
Kingdoms unburied, empires yet unborn—
While the night wind blows cool across the sky,
While man's ambition struggles toward the west,
Let us ride on through moonlight into morn.

—Jeannette Bliss Gillespy, '00, *The Morningside,* December 21, 1899.

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[1] *The Eastward Road,* New York, James Pott & Company, 1903.

Miss Gillespy's verse-harmony and flexibility of rhythm, seen better in other poems of this volume, were not lost on the college community. Her successor on the editorial board of *Morningside,* Clara E. Gruening, has not only the touch but, what is far more rare among undergraduates, the power to sustain and lift.

### NIGHT FANCIES

(Schumann, Opus 99, 12)

Hush, the night; and then
Down the purple glen
Silence falls.
Life and Death ride near;
Hark and you shall hear:
"Who calls?"

"Brother, it is I.
In the cloud-flecked sky
Our lamp shines bright.
In its mystic ray
Let us swing and sway
All the night."

O'er the shadowy hills
Trembles, breaks and thrills
Melody.
None of elfin born
Can withstand that horn.
Swiftly, see

How from brake and bower
Of wind-cradled flower
Creep and crawl,
Slip from blade to blade
Glisten white i' the shade,
The fairies all.

Now their shimmering feet
Move in blithe retreat,
Now advance.
From their floating hair
Rose-leaves fill the air
As they dance.

Awake! dull mortal world,
In heavy slumber curled,
Breathe deep:
The night wind from the heath
Grows rich in spirits' breath
The while you sleep.

Wake and lend your ear,
That may learn to hear,
    In silent night,
Innumerable voices singing
Where pale the moon is flinging
    Its shivering light.

Higher floats and higher
The sweet, unearthly choir;
    Breeze-blown, a sigh,
Most clear, most wild, to break
Where poets dreaming wake,
    Where maidens lie.

Now like a spreading star
From the horizon far
    Steals the red day.
Hush, hush, the fluttering wings.
Away, ye fearsome things,
    Away, away.

—Clara E. Gruening, '03, *The Morningside,* April 25, 1901.

The tradition thus established in Barnard college life is still fruitful. Though the Columbia literary magazines have had the fitfulness common to undergraduate periodicals, Barnard has meantime carried on for ten years a magazine of its own, *The Bear*. The verse translation in the earlier numbers shows a classical literary influence that has since been strengthened and focused by Greek Games. How these bring out song may be read in a preceding article. They have the further tendency to promote poems of more than lyric length, of that narrative scope which comes from mythmaking. Some of the most interesting verse written at Barnard is thus precluded from quotation. Moreover the chief spiritual evidence on the twenty-fifth anniversary is, not a tale by years, but the verse written by the present graduating class.

### THE SECRET DOOR

The child I was, the child that once was you,
Dwelt in a garden, happy the long day through.
Time had no meaning for them but the hours
That sped from dawn to night among the flowers,
And life was but a dim and empty name
In that fair garden whence our childhood came.
All that we knew was play and laughter there,

For our whole world was made exceeding fair;
And rain and smiling faces and the sun,
Night by the fire, and, after day was done,
Bed and the dreamless dark, alike were kind.
The hours were hidden joys a child could find.
Then from that world we built a secret door
Which, once passed by, would shut forevermore,
And wove a thousand dreams around the day
That we should enter there, upon our way
Into a world of mystery, a place
Made of the cloth of dreams, when mystic grace
Sent to men's souls a god-like strength to do,
And truth was beauty and all beauty true.
Our faith was ready—yea, our courage high—
Dear God! Why did we pass that doorway by?
No light, no love, no mystery, no dream,
No strength to be in truth the man we seem,
But paltry meanness and the eternal cry
Only for the scant courage not to die.
The child I was, the child that once was you,
Fled backward as we passed that doorway through,
And faith is wounded, mystery has fled;
The hopes within those childish hearts lie dead.
In vain we knock upon that garden door,
For we shall see those children nevermore,
And only this be left us, still to hear
Faint echoes of their laughter hidden there,
And sometimes, like faint shadows fainter seen,
Remember shades of what we might have been.

—Rhoda Erskine, '15, *The Barnard Bear,* January, 1913.

## THE CLOSED DOOR

Open the door! for we are the weak—
Weak in our bodies which have grown as the weeds grow,
Unnourished, without care and without clothes;
Our eyes are sunken and we tremble with weakness,
And our brows are damp with the striving without strength:
Open the door where lies our strength!

Open the door! for we are the sick—
Sick with the illness that eats the core of the universe,
Flushed with the fever which bites at the vitals of the world;
We are suffocating—
We choke in the fumes which our own illness generates:
Open where lies clean sunshine and fresh air.

Open the door! for we are the poor—
We dwell in the bogs of our poorness,
And the quagmires are dragging through our pores—

Our souls!
They are sucking out our souls,
And leave us life,
Life in the morass outside the door!

Open the door!
Open, we say!
For we are the Strong!
Strong in our weakness, our sickness and our poverty;
We flaunt the strength of our soullessness:
We are the Strong!
Open—or we will break!

—Lillian Soskin, '15, *The Barnard Bear,* January, 1914.

## MADONNA

Ave Maria! I call thee, Mary, hail!
Behold me as I kneel beside my bed,
Look down upon me, on my shrunken frame,
Gaze on these breasts so withered and so dry,
Look on the travesty of womanhood,
And pity me! Once I was fair indeed,
Once I was young as thou forever art!
Life beat its wings and love throbbed in my veins;
But each ebbed swift away, and here I am,
Ugly and barren—
Ah, but Mary, hear!
'Twas yesterday I rode beside a woman,
A little, tired one who had a child.
It wailed and wept, and she, a poor, frail thing,
Tried to allay, but could not still his cries.
So I stretched out my arms and took him up,
And whispered to him, smiled into his eyes,
And kissed his tiny hands and smooth, round cheeks.
Oh, Mary, queen! How soft and velvet-like!
How warm and comforting, how pink and sweet!
And all to-day I walked as in a trance,
Feeling within my heart a wond'rous glow
Where his soft head had pressed. Madonna, mine,
It is not given to all, to thee alone,
To walk the man-made pathway of the pure,
To be a virgin and a mother too!
So be then kind and through this one, great night,
While the world draws the even breath of sleep,
Grant me forgetfulness of what I am
And let me feel that head upon my breast.
Grant this, eternal mother of the world—
One night of mystic motherhood bequeath
Upon a daughter who has had no child!

—Lillian Soskin, '15, *The Barnard Bear,* April, 1914.

## CRESSIDA

The vine that straggles leafless on the ground,
While all around is flowered loveliness,
Is but a sorry sight; and yet not half
So famished for the glow of flaming light
As beauty blown amid grey barrenness.
And I was beautiful, and I had known
The arms and lips of man. For but a year
I lived in love that swept me from myself
To dizzying, dazzling heights—then he was gone—
And like a rich, ripe fruit upon a tree,
Warm with the sun, wind-blown and free and fair,
I cried: If none will come to gather me,
I wither all untouched—or else I fall.

None came; I felt my beauty slipping from me,
As petals drift from roses in the wind,
Until the golden heart alone is bared.
And then he came, a conqueror, a man,
A boy, a dreamer, who had raised me high,
Had placed me on a throne within his soul,
And worshipped there—my husk, my bright-hued shell.
I was a woman, and my passion flared
A flame that softly winds its shining arms
About a tree, and kills, where kiss is meant.
He was a swift-dawn-wind from singing seas.
I knew I had no right to let him love.
I yearned to strip my soul to nakedness,
And show him what a strange, small thing it was,
Robbed of its robes of blue and shimmering gold;
But oh! I feared! And feverishly I flung
Soft amber, regal purple, round my soul,
And wreathed my heart with flowers; and I ruled
My Troilus, and gloried in my power.
'Twas not for him I cared, ah! not for him,
But for the homage paid my womanhood;
It was my right. And fairer still I grew,
Proud in the glory of triumphant youth.

But then there came a time, when I, a queen,
Yearned to surrender all my royal might,
I wanted to be ruled, to bow my head,
To whisper, I am thine,—do what thou wilt!
My swift-dawn-wind was all too slight for me,
Too fresh, too sweet, too full of dreaming song.
The flame died down—I felt that it must live,—
And there came one who whipped it back to life.

Without a glance behind me, I stormed on;
I heard my swift-dawn-wind had died—for me,
I gave no heed, no tears—and hastened on.

I know the end is near; but I will live,
Will drain the cup that brims with crimson wine.
Not as the purple orchid will I die,
Withering, starving slowly day by day
Unto a deathlike shadow of itself.
I will be lovely—lovely for a day,
And perish in a moment—with a smile.

—Olga Marx, '15, *The Barnard Bear,* November, 1914.

## THE DEATH OF BALDUR

In Bethlehem when Christ was born
The Old Gods of the Northern Snow
Grew wan and pale like misty flame;
And at the breaking of the morn
Said Baldur, "Let us go."
He called the green leaves down to him,
He whispered to the silent trees,
"The twilight of the Gods is come,
Oblivion waits at Infrin's rim,
The White God rules beyond the seas."
The Old Gods came with empty hands
That once had held the earth; no wrath
Furrowed their brows, no insolence.
Then Baldur struck his harp; through lands
Untrod they took their misty path.
And with the coming of the day
The Christ-child sleeping, woke and said,
"The Old Gods all have passed away—
Earth mourns great Baldur dead."
His Mother smiled, "Their reign is past."
"Their reign is past," the Christ-child saith.
He bade His chanting angels cease—
"Baldur goes singing to his death."

—Alice Jones, '15, *The Barnard Bear,* December, 1914.

The striking diversity seen in this single class is typical of Barnard. But whether the inspiration be Chaucer, sociology or Norse mythology, whether the verse be old or new, we have assurance that the torch still burns.

Charles Sears Baldwin

# DR. REDLICH ON THE CASE METHOD IN AMERICAN UNIVERSITY LAW SCHOOLS

A REMARKABLE document of compelling interest is the Eighth Bulletin of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, prepared by Dr. Joseph Redlich, the distinguished professor of law in the University of Vienna. To the work of preparing this bulletin Dr. Redlich has brought the resources of a keen and vigorous mind, trained in the continental systems of law, and a wide knowledge of continental and English legal institutions and methods of legal instruction. His investigation included the visting of typical law schools in a number of our cities.

The controversy between the adherents of the so-called case system of legal instruction and those who cling to the older systems of instruction by lecture or text-book, ceased to be a live one so far as law teachers were concerned, twenty years ago. When Professor Langdell in 1870 first put into operation his plan for law study by placing in the hands of the student the original sources of law, that is to say, the records and judicial opinions in selected decided cases, the innovation evoked a storm of criticism and discussion which did not subside until the last decade of the nineteenth century, after Columbia had established the case system in its Law School under the leadership of Keener, and the University of Chicago had adopted it in organizing its law school in 1902. Meanwhile Langdell, with the aid of the remarkable group of law teachers he had gathered about him at Harvard, had demonstrated the scholarly efficiency of the new method of instruction and its practical advantages as a method of professional training. In rapid succession the law schools of the country have adopted it, until today, as the later publications of the Carnegie Foundation will show, there is not a single university law school in the country which has adhered unqualifiedly to the lecture and text-book method of instruction. This result was brought about not merely by the process of blind imitation, but as the consequence of years of study and investigation and of weighing of results by legal educators.

It therefore may be said that when the Carnegie Foundation began its investigation of legal education in the United States there was substantially but one opinion as to the efficacy of the case method of instruction in law among university law teachers. To them it was unthinkable that the law schools of the country should revert in any substantial degree to the archaic method of instruction by formal lecture or class-room quizzes, based on elementary text-books.

Whatever lingering doubts there may be among laymen as to the great advance in educational methods made by the adoption and development of the case system in American law schools should be dispelled by Dr. Redlich's remarkable commentary. He traces the origin and history of the case system, draws freely from the controversial discussion of it, and gives an intimate picture of its practical operation. His unqualified conclusion is that the case method is the scientific method of law study, that to an exceptional degree it kindles the student's enthusiasm for legal learning, and that, judged by its results, it has been exceptionally successful as a method of training lawyers.

"Thus," he says, "in the modern American law school, professional practice is preceded by a genuine course of study, the methods of which are perfectly adapted to the nature of the common law. The average student at Harvard or Columbia who starts with the requisite general education and capacity, who takes full advantage of his three years' course, and who proves this by his success in the yearly written examinations, enters finally into the practice of the law office—and a law office that is busy, too, with difficult legal questions—better prepared than a graduate of any other school in America, England, or on the European continent. In his practice he has only to continue to exercise and to develop the manner of thinking that he has already brought to a very high degree of perfection in the school."

Dr. Redlich shows that the case method as now applied in the American university law school is in some respects an improvement upon the system originally devised by Langdell. To Langdell the case system was a scientific method of acquiring legal knowledge. In his mind, although the decisions were of course very many, the legal principles on which these decisions were based were comparatively few, and the student could acquire accurate knowledge of those principles by the analysis and comparison of decided cases under the guidance of a competent teacher. To later exponents of the case system it means much more than this. To them it is a method of training the intellectual faculties to do the work of the lawyer. By continual practice in the analysis and comparison of decided cases the law student is trained from the beginning of his course to do the kind of work which he will do as a lawyer or a judge throughout his professional career. Thus he acquires a facility in the application of legal principles to new combinations of facts which is impossible for the student who has studied law as a collection of abstract rules or principles neatly summarized in a text-book or formal lecture.

This "shift of emphasis" has not always been recognized by the opponents of the case system, and there are doubtless still many lawyers of the old school who do not understand why the student should familiarize himself with a rule of law by the laborious process of reading the cases by which the rule has been haltingly evolved, when he could find and read the rule stated in its complete form in a standard text. The answer made by the adherents of the case system is that the student who has learned the rule of law from a text-book knows little of its history and development, and nothing of its application to concrete problems. He is wholly without that mastery of legal principles which comes with constant practice in the analysis of cases and the class-room discussion of them. Dr. Redlich's treatment of this phase of the subject in a separate chapter gives an interesting account of the development of the case system by the followers of Langdell, and will do much to clear up certain misapprehensions on the part of those who are not intimately acquainted with the work and methods of the modern law school.

No less are we indebted to Dr. Redlich for pointing out the error into which some of the more zealous advocates of the case system have fallen in asserting that the law is a science. Law should doubtless be studied by the case system because, as Dr. Redlich more than once points out, this is the scientific method. The likening of law to the natural sciences, and of the case system to the laboratory method, possesses a certain illustrative value, of which some of the earlier advocates of the system were quick to make use. It is quite possible that those making use of it were in reality only seeking a useful analogy, and not attempting to establish the identity of law with science. If so, the zeal of advocacy has carried them beyond their original purpose and committed them to the support of a proposition which will not bear critical examination. The study of positive law, that is to say, the body of rules of conduct which are made legally controlling because of state sanction, is not a study based on observation of the various manifestations of the phenomenon of uniformity in nature which constitutes the basis of true science. It is, rather, the study of the underlying principles ("norms," Dr. Redlich calls them, which form the subject matter or basis of the so-called intellectual sciences, or the *Geisteswissenschaften*) upon which rest the specific commands or prohibitions of judicial decisions. These constitute an artificial system, artificial in the sense of being not subject to natural laws, but wholly the product of the human mind and will, consciously created and developed for the purpose of establishing the order and promoting the cooperative effort of civilized communties. While therefore not constituting the subject matter of true science, those principles may nevertheless be discovered by the student from the decided cases by the inductive or scientific method. But, as Dr. Redlich indicates, they are deductively applied by the lawyer and the judge, and it is at this point that the supposed analogy of law to science breaks down completely. Dr. Redlich's admirable discussion of this phase of his subject is of great value, not only in the interest of sound and accurate thinking, but in making clear that our approach to the great problems of law reform and law development should be uninfluenced by the specious analogy between substantive law, a purely artificial human product, and the unalterable laws of the natural universe which constitute natural science.

It is in Dr. Redlich's constructive criticism of our methods of applying the case system that law teachers, and indeed, educators generally, will be especially interested. These may be briefly summarized as follows: (1) that the larger schools (he mentions Harvard and Columbia specifically) are generally giving instruction to too large classes; (2) that there should be an introductory lecture course on the fundamentals of law at the very beginning of the course of law study in the American law school, and that there should also be a lecture course given during the third or last year of the course covering the field commonly known as jurisprudence; (3) that the course should be extended from three to four years.

It is obvious that classes should not be so large in numbers, nor should the lecture room possess such characteristics, as to preclude any member of the class from hearing easily all the class-room discussion as it proceeds. These requirements, however, present no difficulties in classes numbering from one hundred to one hundred and fifty. The end sought by the case method of instruction is not practice in dialectics or public speaking, but the leading of the entire class, step by step, through the intellectual processes by which the cases are analyzed and compared and their true legal significance developed. This is accomplished not by having every member, or indeed any large number of members, of the class participate orally in the discussion, but by insuring that every member of the class is a sharer in it intellectually. This problem presents no difficulty to the competent instructor. With him every member of the class knows that he may be called on at any moment, at any stage of the discussion, to participate in it, to present his own views as critic or coadjutor of those who have already contributed to the discussion, and who may be called upon to resume it.

It may safely be asserted that in the hands of the competent instructor, the attention of the members of the class and their comprehension of the class-room work bears very slight relation to their numbers, provided these do not exceed the physical limitations already indicated. Indeed, there is some incidental advantage to be gained from the student's experience in being constantly prepared to state his position and defend it before a very considerable number of his fellows. Dr. Redlich emphatically supports this conclusion in his description of classroom methods in the case-system law schools. He says:

" In the actual class exercise the professor calls on one of the students, and has him state briefly the content of the case. Then follows the interchange of question and answer between teacher and student; in the course of the discussion other students are brought in by the teacher, and still others interject themselves in order to offer objections or doubts or to give a different answer to the original question. The whole exercise generally moves quickly, and yet with absolute quiet and with the undivided attention of the class. It must indeed make a strong impression upon every visitor to observe, as, for instance, in the Harvard or Columbia Law School, classes of one hundred to one hundred and fifty students engaged in this intensive intellectual work; all the students intent upon the subject, and the whole class continually, but to a certain extent imperceptibly, guided by the teacher and held to a common train of thought. The thing that specially impressed me was the general intense interest displayed by the whole class in the discussion, even by those who did not take part in it themselves. I do not remember that a student, when called upon, was confused or unable to reply, although, of course, not all gave an adequate answer. The transition from one case to another followed quickly, and indeed in general the tempo is a rapid one, and always only the matter in hand is discussed and superfluous generalities are avoided. Digressions from the theme are, as a rule, dismissed by the lecturer with a short remark; pauses seldom occur, for if the professor notices a general lack of understanding of the case, he then interposes with a lengthy explanation. The great majority of the students make notes during the course of the discussion. I looked at many of these note-books and found in them the principles of the case jotted down, almost always briefly but intelligently, and for the most part in ordinary longhand writing."

In another portion of the report Dr. Redlich emphasizes the importance and the difficulty of securing instructors who apply the case system in a thorough and efficient manner. In view of this difficulty, it seems probable that the lectures of the competent instructor will continue to be attended by classes of very considerable size, and that the benefits which may be conferred upon his classes by such an instructor entirely outweigh the minor inconveniences, if such there be, of classes numbering from one hundred to one hundred and fifty.

Theoretically Dr. Redlich makes out a sound case for the addition to our law-school curriculum of an introductory course in law and a concluding course in jurisprudence. The suggestion of an introductory course is not altogether novel. Columbia has maintained such a course for the past nine years, but its example has not been very generally followed. It is easy to overestimate the importance of the introductory course in Elements or Institutes of Law. The primary object of such a course is preparation for the more difficult legal problems presented in concrete form by the cases. It is thus a means of giving the student such incidental information and such notions of fundamental legal concepts and legal history as will enable him to pursue more effectively the study of the larger legal problems. As a matter of fact, the work which Dr. Redlich would assign to the introductory law course is already largely accomplished by the introductory portions of the several first-year courses now offered in most law schools, which, by lecture, combined with classroom discussion and collateral reading, make somewhat easier and more intelligible the students' first experience with judicial decisions.

That this method has proved to be effective, and on the whole, satisfactory, Dr. Redlich himself gives most convincing proof. He calls on Mr. Justice Holmes to bear witness to a fact well known to law instructors by the case method, that "after a week or two," when the first confusing novelty is overcome, students taught by this method examine legal questions "with an accuracy of view which they never could have learned from text books and which often exceeded that to be found in text books." Dr. Redlich also speaks of his experience in visiting third-year classes in our law schools, in which members of the class analyzed cases "with great readiness and grasp of subject matter, classes in which there stood out strongly not only excellent logical training, capacity for independent study, and especially for quick apprehension of the actual point of law involved, but also indisputable knowledge of positive law." His own impression is that "law students of the third year in our European law schools, would hardly ever be found competent for such work."

Still less convincing is Dr. Redlich's insistence that the introductory law course must be given by means of formal lecture. Every argument which he advances for the use of the case method of instruction in the major law courses is an argument against the pure lecture or text-book method of instruction, and an equally cogent argument against the use of formal lectures in the introductory law course. In a broad sense the "case method" of instruction is not necessarily confined to the study of judicial decisions and opinions. The essential of the method is only that the student who is to study scientifically shall have placed in his hands for intensive study the materials which constitute the sources of those intellectual concepts or "norms" which constitute the real subject matter of his inquiry, and that he shall then be forced, by means of class-room discussion, under the guidance of the instructor, to go through the intellectual processes by which these concepts are developed. Only by this method does the student make these concepts intellectually his own in such a way as to be capable of using and applying them. Contrasted with the lecture method, it tends steadily to stimulate and develop the intellectual powers of the student and his mastery of the subject, whereas the formal lecture, while it enables the instructor to display the extent and brilliancy of his own training, has very little meaning and vitality to the student who sits at his ease and receives in "waste-basket" fashion the material which is thrown out by the lecturer.

There is an abundance of material to be placed in the hands of the student taking the introductory law course by the case method. Much of this material may be found in judicial opinions, but it need not be limited exclusively to that source. Collected material to be culled from standard authors on law, jurisprudence, and legal history, dealing with fundamental legal notions and the functions of courts, should be arranged in proper sequence and placed in the hands of the student for study before attending the lecture. Especially should this collection include all material of a purely informational and historical character. The practice of assembling bodies of students in lecture rooms to receive information imparted by word of mouth in formal lectures is a species of educational medievalism which has been without any substantial justification since the invention of the printing press.

In preparing this type of "case book" the instructor will not be unmindful of the importance of so arranging the material as to bring the students face to face with the "problems" of the subject. These problems will naturally become the subject of class-room discussion, and will be further developed by the application of the Socratic method. As in other law courses, the discussion will be accompanied by the instructor's explanation and suggestion, directed, however, toward removing those difficulties of the students which their previous study and the discussion itself have developed. That this method of study is superior to the formal lecture method when applied to any of the intellectual sciences cannot be seriously doubted; for it is based on the fundamental truth that all education is merely an aid to intellectual self-help. The instructor who prepares the formal lecture in its most perfect form may in the process become a learned and educated man, but its educational effect on the mere listener is comparable with those benefits of physical exercise which are supposed to be conferred upon the "athletes" who adorn the bleachers at our modern inter-collegiate contests. Should American law schools adopt Dr. Redlich's suggestion by establishing introductory law courses, it is hardly to be supposed that they will throw aside the teachings of experience and return to the formal lecture as a method of instruction.

That the student should conclude his course of formal law study with a course in jurisprudence, in connnection with which he should add to his knowledge of legal history and of other legal systems than our own, is a proposition with which most law teachers will cordially agree. The practical difficulties, however, of adding to the already over-burdened curriculum of our law schools, are serious. In 1821, when all the law reports of the United States were comprised in one hundred and seventy volumes, we find Judge Story lamenting the rapid increase in the mass of the law; and Kent, in his *Commentaries,* spoke of the "multiplicity of law books" as "an evil that has become intolerable." It would be difficult to imagine what would have been the reflections of Story and Kent if they had foreseen that the law reports in the United States in 1915 would have reached a total of about nine thousand volumes, and that there would have been a corresponding increase in the volume of statute law. Not only has the last century witnessed an enormous increase in the mass of legal literature of all classes, but the substance of law itself has increased more rapidly than in any other like period. The greater part of the law of corporations, public-service companies, interstate commerce, life and accident insurance, bankruptcy, constitutional rights under the Fourteenth Amendment, not to mention many other branches of modern law, was unknown to Kent and Story. Upon the modern law school is thus thrown an ever-increasing burden of subject matter, which must be properly distributed among its several courses. In the Columbia Law School there are offered today forty-three courses during the three years' program of studies. Practically all these courses deal with subjects about which the well-trained lawyer should know something, but obviously no student could successfully study them all in a period of three years. Naturally, the law teacher looks with apprehension upon any program which would add new courses to an already over-crowded curriculum.

Dr. Redlich suggests, although it is fair to say he does not urge, a fourth year of law study as the proper solution of this problem, and he credits Harvard with taking a forward step in legal education by establishing an optional fourth year of law study. When Harvard established its fourth year in law in 1905 it followed the example which Columbia set in 1895 when it established an optional fourth year of law study leading to the Master of Laws degree. At neither Harvard nor Columbia has the optional fourth year been successful, judging by the number of students taking the course, or by its educational influence. The number of students registered for the fourth year at Harvard during the year 1914 was four, at Columbia five. Nor is such a course likely to be successful under existing educational conditions in this country. It is very generally agreed among educators that a man entering any of the so-called learned professions should have received the benefits of a liberal education, and this he acquires, under normal conditions, during the four-year college course, upon which is then superimposed his training in the professional school. Students who graduate from college at the average age of twenty-two complete their law course at twenty-five and begin the final phase of legal education by taking up practical work in the lawyer's office at the age of twenty-five or twenty-six. There is ground for believing that the young lawyer should enter upon this final phase of his professional training at an earlier age, and there is certainly no opinion among professional men that the combined period of liberal training and law study should be prolonged by even a year. Nor is there any reasonable expectation that it will be prolonged generally among law schools. If the fourth year of law study is ultimately established, as apparently it ultimately must be by reason of the mere volume of subject matter with which the law course must deal, this year must be saved from the time at present allotted to the liberal and professional courses, and not added to it.

Owing to historical reasons, there is little or no correlation between the college course and the professional course except in those universities which have adopted the so-called combined college and professional course, and even with them this has resulted merely in eliminating from it a year of liberal study, without any substantial correlation or unification of the two courses. The colleges have practically ignored the general educational value of the introductory law course and of the history of legal institutions, and their curricula are too often developed without reference to any definite educational aim or purpose on the part of the student. Because of this fact, and of the demands of the activities of "college life," undergraduate study seldom exhibits that thoroughness and intensity which characterizes the work of the professional student.

These observations indicate that the fourth year of law study may in the university, under proper conditions, be nearly or quite rescued from the college course as at present established, without any substantial loss to the college course in thoroughness and efficiency. By treating the college course as the preliminary step to the professional course, and thus giving it a definite purpose from the start, and by setting the same standards of scholarship as are now set by the professional school, the waste of time and misdirected effort which has characterized education in the American college may be largely eliminated. During the third year of college the student should begin the introductory law studies, which may be so arranged and developed as to serve the double purpose of liberal training and preliminary preparation for technical law-school study. There will then remain three years for intensive professional law study, in which more will be accomplished than at present because of the better preliminary training of the student and his experience with law study during the third year. It is believed that the training of a student who had pursued such a course covering a period of six years, if the course were properly devised and administered, would be quite as satisfactory from the viewpoint of both liberal and professional training as would that of the average college graduate who under present conditions follows his graduation from college with four years of study in the professional school. The next great step in the improvement of educational methods in this country is the transformation of the American college from the position which it now occupies as the convenient meeting place for the youth of the country who wish to enjoy "college life," into institutions for intensive intellectual cultivation, and the combination and intimate correlation of this work with that of the professional school.

For historical reasons, law study in England was never developed as a part of the general educational system as it has been developed in this country, but has remained on the whole a system of "craft guild" instruction under the guidance of the Inns of Court. It is to the American law school, therefore, as the product of a great educational movement, that Dr. Redlich would have us look for the scientific development of the English common law, and for the great contributions to the solution of the problems of law reform. To those who read his report attentively there can be no doubt that to this great work which the American law school is carrying on in the interest of scientific methods of study Dr. Redlich has now made a contribution of great and permanent value.

HARLAN F. STONE.

# IN THE FOGAZZARO COUNTRY

OF the host of Americans who visit Lugano every year, few realize that they are passing by a neighborhood of peculiar interest and importance, not only for Italian but for European literature. Fogazzaro's *Piccolo Mondo Antico*—"The Little World of Long Ago," as it should be called—"The Patriot," as it is inaptly entitled in the English translation—has won a place as a world classic it is unlikely to lose, for it has the universal human appeal which is independent of passing literary fashions. In the United States and in England *Il Santo* has attracted more attention, partly because it was put on the Index, partly because it discusses the current issue of "modernism;" but in literary qualities "The Saint," the third novel of Fogazzaro's great sequence, is much inferior to his opening romance. In Italy and France the *Piccolo Mondo Antico* is generally recognized as Fogazzaro's best and greatest work. It is so mainly because of a certain romantic charm—the charm of Valsolda—which the novelist strove in vain to recapture in his later stories; and this is again due, I am inclined to believe, to the fact that in this novel Fogazzaro was reproducing, with the touch of an artist, real people and real incidents as he had seen and known them in a remote corner of the world, no less attractive for its singular quaintness of social custom than for its entrancing natural beauty.

It cannot be claimed that Fogazzaro has done for the Italian lake country what his great master, "The Wizard of the North," did for the Highlands of Scotland; and those who love the quiet hills and valleys still to be found on the Lugano shores will not altogether regret it. It is a smaller wand the Italian romancer wields, though within its range it is no less potent; and, as the territory is smaller, it is described with an affectionate particularity of detail. The degree of Fogazzaro's indebtedness for local color and inspiration seems much greater than Scott's. Not only are the scenes of the *Piccolo Mondo Antico* taken immediately from nature, but the villages with their steep and narrow streets, winding up the hillside or along the lake shore, the villas with their precipitous terraces and hanging gardens, the quaint churches and churchyards, are still to be seen almost exactly as Fogazzaro described them, for changes in this part of the world are slow. The house at Oria which is the centre of the story is now the Villa Fogazzaro, and the rooms that are associated with some of the most poignant scenes of the novel may easily be identified. One may follow in the footsteps of the golden-hearted engineer of the story from this house to that of Signor Giacomo Puttini of Albogasio Superiore, and on to the little hill-city of Castello, where the midnight marriage of the hero and heroine took place. The little cemetery of Looch, where so many hopes and fears were laid to rest, nestles in the valley beyond. The houses of Pasotti and Gilardoni in the same neighborhood are still so called by the older inhabitants, though they have passed into other hands. Higher up the lake is San Mamette, and beyond it the villa of the terrible old Marchioness at Cressogno—now awaiting an enterprising American purchaser. A little further on is the lovely church of Caravina, still the resort of the whole neighborhood for great festivals. Back in the hills are the villages of Dasio and Puria, from which came the quaint old priests of the romance, now gone, but not forgotten.

Many of the characters were taken from life, but it is in the course of nature that a story whose setting goes back to 1851 should have few survivors in 1914. I had a memorable talk with the old boatman Pin who opens the romance. He is still hale and hearty, busily engaged in overseeing the construction of a new carriage road which threatens to unite the neighborhood with the modern world. He is somewhere between seventy and and eighty—about seventy-five he thought—and his recollections go back to the war of 1848. He served in the Austrian army of 1859, and has not yet entirely overcome his surprise that the complexities of European diplomacy "handed us over to Piedmont," though he is now a stout Italian patriot. The lady who took such a lively interest in the doings of the whole neighborhood that she scanned the lake and the countryside with a telescope is also still alive; and many other recognized characters, now beyond human weaknesses and virtues, are still remembered. The novel is all "old stuff" (*roba antica*), say the aged inhabitants, though they cherish Fogazzaro's memory and are full of appreciation both of his literary work and of his personal qualities, for he showed a generous solicitude for their welfare. The uncle Ribera who is the most engaging character in the story was Fogazzaro's uncle. His real name was Barrera, and he was chief engineer for the district of Como under the Austrian government. The house at Oria was his house, and it was here that Fogazzaro (himself a citizen of Vicenza) came to visit his mother's relatives and to wander with his young wife on the hills. The hero-poet of the story is Fogazzaro himself, and many details of the experiences described are his own. The accidental drowning of the little girl, which forms the spiritual centre of the novel, was suggested by the narrow escape from a similar fate of the author's only son, who, to his great grief, died just before coming to manhood. The novelist's family still owns and occupies the house, which is sometimes pointed out on the steamer to tourists; but these are generally more attracted by the picturesque villa below, almost on the Swiss frontier, with its beautiful cypresses and its striking terrace garden. This also appears, though not so prominently, in the story, along with its former owner, the Marquis Bianchi. It is now known as the Villa Brusati, and at the time of my visit was occupied for the summer by a charming American family of my acquaintance, who appreciated their good fortune and entered sympathetically into the literary associations of their surroundings. To them I am greatly obliged for help in ascertaining the extent of Fogazzaro's debt to Valsolda—a debt he would be himself the first to acknowledge and the last to forget.

J. W. Cunliffe

# EDITORIAL COMMENT

**The Barnard Celebration**

The war-belated twenty-fifth anniversary celebration of the founding of Barnard College was held on April 29. Originally planned for the month of November, it was postponed because of a common feeling that the grave issues before the civilized world did not permit the occasion to be commemorated with sufficient joy and enthusiasm. At the appearance of this number of the Quarterly the college has nearly completed its twenty-sixth year.

The commemoration exercises were the most elaborate and extensive ever held by Barnard. At the formal exercises in the Columbia gymnasium on the afternoon of Thursday, April 29, President Butler spoke for the University, Mr. Plimpton as Treasurer of the Board of Trustees, President Woolley as representative of women's colleges, and Mr. McAneny for the City. In the evening of the same day a subscription dinner was held at the Hotel Astor, at which the experiment was successfully realized of choosing the speakers entirely from women who have done important work in the community. Among these were Miss Beaux, Mrs. Belmont, Miss Repplier and the former deans of Barnard College, Mrs. Putnam and Miss Gill. Dean Gildersleeve presided at these meetings. The formal exercises were supplemented on the part of the students by the unusually brilliant and elaborate Greek Games, postponed till Friday, April 30, in order to make part of the celebration.

Even more significant and of more general interest is the Educational Exhibit opened at the New York Public Library on the day of the celebration and to be continued through September. The exhibition in the main consists of manuscripts, printed books and other interesting objects from the collection of Mr. George A. Plimpton, and illustrates the education of women in ancient and medieval times in European countries, confining itself, however, in modern times, to England and, in the nineteenth century, to America. It would have been impossible without many years of preparation to assemble sufficient data to illustrate the entire history of women's education in all countries; nor must it be supposed that the documents illustrate the education of women as an exclusive thing. Not until toward the end of the seventeenth century, in England at least, did the book education of women tend to become consciously differentiated from that of men of the same class. These matters are explained by short statements annexed to the material exhibited. There are also a few charts and diagrams showing certain important facts in the education of women and in the work on Morningside Heights in particular. Generally speaking, the outstanding fact in the history of the last thirty years, as is set forth in earlier pages of this issue, has been the rapid entry of women into wage-earning and professional occupations. At the same time, however, the proportion of women to men in colleges is increasing but slightly. In 1889–1890 women constituted something over thirty percent of the college population; last year they numbered a trifle over thirty-six percent, the number being 73,587 women to 128,644 men in 1912–1913.

It is evident, however, from the documents supplied in this educational exhibit that women have considerably less opportunity than have men. They are also considerably less mobile. In a large and representative university like Columbia, for example, comprising diverse faculties and schools, extension teaching, summer session and various kinds of work in all branches, a great many schools are not open to women at all, and many of the more newly opened schools admit comparatively few women. On the other hand, in education and in the general work in summer session, frequented as it is by teachers from all over the country, women outnumber men. Their comparative immobility is displayed in the fact that whereas in local centers in extension teaching they are more numerous than men, the reverse is true of the evening work on University Heights. It will presumably be some time before women are in a position of equal opportunity and equal freedom.

All in all, the formal exercises of the Barnard celebration, the dinner, and the educational exhibit were designed,—and successfully carried out,—less to show the greatness of Barnard College, than to tell something about what women are doing, to let them explain what they have done and are doing,—to let the historical fact and the present need speak for themselves. The attitude taken by Barnard College was that of demonstrator.

Nevertheless, what has been often said in the Quarterly of the significance of Barnard College may be repeated in substance. Like other women's colleges, Barnard aims to give women the same opportunities for education that are enjoyed by men. Barnard College, however, to a greater extent than any other women's college in the east, recognizes this principle as fundamental,—that to give women an education really equivalent to that of men, you must educate them with men or under circumstances as similar as possible. Nature can be trusted to differentiate the sexes. The trend in the east, however, being against co-education, Barnard College has been able to take advantage of an opportunity unique among eastern colleges, not excepting even Radcliffe. This unique distinction lies in the terms of its connection with Columbia University. The elements of that situation are these: (1) the members of its faculty hold university appointments and are hence of university standing; (2) they are paid by Barnard College and are hence responsible to it; (3) by a system of exchanges, they do some of their work in Columbia University, and hence in return Barnard College enjoys the services of other university professors. Barnard College, therefore, stands on a parity with Columbia College in the service of the university men. Its teaching is primarily by university men whose first duty is to Barnard.

The Quarterly congratulates Barnard College on the remarkable and successful growth of twenty-five, of nearly twenty-six years. It is the youngest of the larger women's colleges in the east and, though far from being the largest, is second to none in its quality and its standards. It deserves very highly of this community and will continue to deserve more and more. The Quarterly especially wishes that Barnard may succeed at this time in completing its million dollar endowment fund and in raising an additional million dollars for new buildings, so sorely needed even by the present students and indispensable if the college is to carry on its important work in New York City. The fact is not sufficiently called to public attention that women's colleges invariably have a harder time of it than men's colleges. The reason is simple. There is, first, the lingering prejudice against the higher education of women, particularly against their professional education. More than that is the fact that no woman's college has the body of rich graduates which most long established men's colleges possess. Their graduates are enthusiastic enough,—men could not be more so,—but they have not the money, unless it comes to them from rich fathers and husbands. Barnard College owes nine-tenths of its endowment and of its property to the gifts of not over one-half dozen generous individuals, nearly all women. It is to be hoped that rich men also will see the surpassing importance of good women's colleges and will help them also. Meanwhile the Quarterly speeds Barnard College on its quest. W. T. B.

**A Gift of Barnard to the City**

The Mayor's Bundle Day Committee in New York this winter, to which we referred in our last issue, attempted to relieve in one particular at least the suffering caused by prevalent lack of work. The idea of bringing about a swift and direct transfer of clothing from those that could spare it to those who were in dire need of it,—men and women who could not get work, children who could not go to school without it—was in a sense a provincial one, likely to succeed in practical application only if it received the community support characteristic of smaller places than New York City and of less intent groups than those that make up its population. The effort did receive that support heartily—from newspapers, railroads, department stores, the public schools, the police stations, and the whole police force, the churches, and many other private organizations and individuals. In the number and variety of agencies it called together, Bundle Day proved to be a significant social experiment.

The disposal of several million garments, the dealing with many thousands of people in desperate conditions, and the need of carrying the whole operation through with the utmost swiftness, demanded suddenly a very large, as well as an intelligent, force of volunteer workers. For early in the work it became apparent that Bundle Day was bringing to the light the whole story of the winter's unemployment and suffering throughout the city. Every time the standard of relief was raised this winter, whether by the opening of a new mayor's workshop, by a new bread line, or by the more general appeal of Bundle Day, there came a new stirring of the depths, bringing to the surface of society all the vast forces of misery in the city. The suffering and destruction of war made an appeal that was no more importunate than this. Every day came hundreds of letters with a tale of unemployment, of lack of food, illness, new-born babies, impending eviction, which no bundle of clothing could do much for. Every day thousands of people told the same story at the door. Even an emergency relief movement, with the object of supplying clothing only, could not make up the bundles and stop there. Churches, organizations and individuals came to the fore, offering to look after at once any families referred to them by special delivery or by telephone.

It was necessary to find the cases that needed attention most speedily. The letters of appeal were vague, many of them carrying their tragedy between the lines. Many of the applicants were reticent, inarticulate about their exact condition, to which, however, their looks and manner bore ominous testimony. It was not a situation to be taken up and put down. Nor was it possible to refer all persons, wholesale, to the agencies and people willing to look after them. All were sufficiently bad, but some were desperate. For instance, there was a small "eviction fund." Hundreds of families were behind with the rent; those in imminent danger of being put out, with sick children, had to be dealt with first.

In this social crisis Barnard students rendered a significant service. In the work of finding families in immediate, or the most immediate need, and of judging in what directions relief should be first supplied, they performed a very important work for the Mayor's Committee. There was nothing amateurish about their work. They reported promptly, covered their assigned fields in the quickest possible time, reported by telephone when that was necessary. Their return records showed a practical understanding of the work as well as a thorough sympathy with the situation in New York City into which they gained an insight. They were not doing "field work in economics." Whether, in order to do that, it is or is not necessary to go outside the university confines, is quite a separate question. They were rather quietly assuming a part in a social expression or movement in their city, at once contributing services where they were sorely needed, and—if their own testimony be heeded—identifying themselves in a significant way with the forces of life and society which college and university aim to make them understand. They showed their training. They acted without sentimentality, and with a largeness of grasp that was mature and satisfying.

E. E. L.

**The Proposed Rebuilding of the Medical School**

The discussion of the problem of the future of the Columbia School of Medicine has now advanced to a new stage. It has long been obvious that the present buildings of the School, which represented a great advance in equipment for medical education in 1887, have become inadequate. Moreover the School, which forty years ago demanded laboratories for the medical sciences, now requires a hospital for its clinical departments. Alliance with the Presbyterian Hospital seems to have provided the germ which, if sufficiently nourished and wisely cared for, will develop into a powerful institution. The plan now put forward with confidence and with harmonious agreement among all the parties concerned, involves the abandonment of all previous suggestions for location on the East River, on West 59th Street, or in the immediate vicinity of the rest of the University, and calls for a site two miles north of Morningside Heights. Here at 165th Street and Broadway a plot of ground of more than nine acres in extent and approximately square, beautiful in situation and readily accessible, has been reserved by option by friends of the University and Hospital, and here it is now proposed to place the future institution. Here, it is hoped, a new medical center will appear, where medical education and research will find adequate opportunity for growth. The preliminary plan, which has now been formed in its general features, calls for the erection of several buildings. These include a building or buildings of much greater capacity than the present group on 59th Street, to house the medical sciences, the Crocker Cancer Research laboratories, and also a School of Sanitary Science and Public Health; a building or buildings to house the hospital, with an ultimate capacity sufficiently large to provide not only for general medicine and surgery, but for the medical specialties; a building for the Vanderbilt Clinic, to serve also as the out-patient department of the hospital; a building for the Sloane Hospital whenever it is found desirable to move that institution from its present site; a dormitory for the accommodation of at least 400 medical students, with an adequate dining-hall for both students and instructors; and a building to house a training school for nurses and serve as the nurses' home. A coniderable portion of the ground space is to be left for the present unoccupied and will afford an opportunity for future growth.

To enable these large plans to be realized a large sum of money is required. The present estimates call for the raising of a fund of seven and a half or eight millions by the Hospital in addition to whatever sums may be needed by the Hospital. To a layman this may seem a tremendous sum of money to be expended for a single professional school of a university. But when there is taken into consideration the enormous cost of medical education, the great expense of maintaining a hospital, and the desirability of establishing an institution for higher instruction and research that will be in all respects worthy of the City of New York and of Columbia University, and that will serve as the leading medical center of America, the sum now asked for does not appear excessive. The University and the Hospital have presented their needs to the public in the confident hope that they will be made capable of fulfillment at a reasonably early date.

F. S. L.

**William Douglas Sloane**

These inspiring plans bring inevitably to mind the devotion and the large views of the trustee who died on March 19. The Sloane Maternity Hospital is an educational landmark. Its philanthropic service is evident in the 34,000 cases expertly handled during twenty-eight years; its educational significance emerges more and more as we realize progressively the ideal of a university school of medicine. Toward this ideal Mr. Sloane gave a million and a half in money; and with it he gave himself.

C. S. B.

**The Announcement of Columbia College for 1915-1916**

On account of the recent rapid growth in numbers, the College will hereafter limit, in the interest of sound teaching, the attendance upon certain courses which cannot be broken up into individual sections. Admission to such courses will be based in part upon priority of application and in part upon a student's general standing in the college community.

With a view to preparation for professional courses, the Committee on Instruction has drawn up several definite programs, in each case leading up to graduate work whether in engineering, architecture, journalism, or business. The last series is at once an innovation and a response to an obvious need. Such arrangements have been made through the cooperation of the Faculties of Law and Applied Science and the Administrative Board of Extension Teaching that the major part of each student's time in the fourth year may be occupied by courses dealing with accounting and finance, with the social organization of business and corporation finance, with the machinery and methods of manufacturing and transportation, with commercial geography, business ethics and the elements of law.

Announcement is made for the first time of the scholarship founded in memory of John Visscher Wheeler of the Class of '65 by the will of Mrs. Susan F. Johnson Hudson, the income of a fund of $21,000 awarded for four years to a student entering Columbia College. In awarding these scholarships preference shall be given to candidates nominated by alumni associations and clubs and, among such candidates, to the sons of alumni of Columbia College. The holder of the scholarship shall reside in Hartley Hall.

Beginning with the year 1915–16, *Columbia Spectator,* the daily student newspaper of the university, will offer a scholarship each half year to the amount of $75, to any member of the freshman or sophomore class. The scholarship is awarded on the basis of the candidate's scholastic standing, on services rendered in the business department of the paper, in form of circulation or advertising secured, and in other ways, such as office work, etc. No student is eligible for this scholarship who has lost credit in his academic work during the previous half year.

In view of the adoption in January, 1915, of the revised schedule of fees, a sum has been set aside for the purpose of assigning grants to make up the difference between the old and the new point rate of five and six dollars respectively for students of high standing. Such grants are issued upon the joint recommendation of the Committee on Scholarships and the Student Employment Office, in general only to students who are known to the latter to be working their way.

A limited number of students, coming from distances from New York City, who are unable to pay more than the minimum rental for residence in Hartley Hall, and whose academic standing and other qualifications qualify them for consideration by the Committee on Scholarships, may receive grants making up the difference between such minimum rents and the rental charge of such room in the building as may in each case be assigned by the Superintendent of Buildings and Grounds.

An appropriation has been set aside by the Trustees of the University for the purpose of making up in whole or in part the difference between the stipend of the State Scholarships, five of which are awarded by the State in each assembly district each year, and the Columbia tuition fees in the case of a limited number of students who may be recommended by the principals of the schools from which they graduated as being of exceptionally high personal and academic promise.

F. D. F.

**The Summer Session**

The Announcement of the Sixteenth Summer Session surpasses its predecessors, at least in bulk, forming a book of 208 pages and making by far the largest single announcement issued by the University. Especially significant at this time are the courses in Industrial Chemistry, in the Origin of Nationalism and Democracy in Modern Europe, and in Nationalism and Democracy in Europe since 1870. A course on Iberian America is to be conducted by the American Association for International Conciliation. There will be also classes in Portuguese and in spoken Spanish that will prove of value to students intending later to visit South America. Among other interesting classes is a series suggested by the Department of Education at Albany, planned especially for teachers of commerce in high schools. The Department of Medicine has greatly increased its offering, as has also Camp Columbia. In addition to the courses in Religion, there will be this summer a two weeks' conference from July 6 to July 17, planned especially for ministers and religious workers. The School of Philanthropy in conjunction with Columbia is to offer two courses in Social Work, and there will be several classes in Social Legislation and allied subjects given by the Department of Sociology.

F. A. P.

**"Cuts"**

The question of the attendance, or rather the non-attendance, of students in American colleges is really a most interesting one and would furnish a pleasurable study in adolescent psychology, if its results did not happen to be so annoying. Assuming that a given article is satisfactory in quality and that the purchaser is a reasoning being, it is hard to see just why such a purchaser, if he happens to be a College undergraduate, after paying for a definite quantity of the article, should feel that he was neglecting his privileges if he did not throw away a certain, often a considerable part of it by *cutting,* or to use the more vivid term in vogue at Michigan, by *bolting* his classes.

A by-product of what appears to have been a rather vigorous discussion at Bryn Mawr upon the regulations governing student absences is an article in a recent issue of the *Bryn Mawr Alumni Magazine* by President Thomas, which gives not only the details of the local controversy but information gathered by her from seventeen other colleges. As one looks over, in Miss Thomas' summary, the attempts of the colleges to meet this question of cutting, and observes how almost everywhere the result has been the avowed or tacit legitimization of the crime, one may well ask whether, after all, the aforesaid assumptions are tenable. It is easy, as many do, after discouraging experiences with irrational individual undergraduates and with their queer conventional group reactions, to deny the assumption that they do possess reasoning qualities, and let it go at that. But after all, is the prevalence of cutting entirely the fault of the student? Does it never happen that the final examination which is supposed to test the *completion* of some particular course of study is year after year so carelessly drawn that all the world, or all the student world at any rate, knows that it does nothing of the kind; or that a College, so far as the student has opportunity to judge, is far more interested in the credit points and the resulting bookkeeping than in the instruction? If these things ever happen, and they do, is a boy (or a girl, because apparently girls are quite as likely to "bolt" as boys), not under considerable temptation to take as many cuts as the law allows? Why after all should a student take serious thought about an absence when by administrative fiat on the part of the College it can *ex post facto,* upon the basis of an approved excuse, be turned into a presence? At Columbia College and Barnard College alone among the eighteen institutions dealt with by Miss Thomas, an absence is always an absence, and to be reckoned with as such no matter what its cause.

Instead of trying to force students to regular attendance by punishments of a more or less puerile character, is it not after all the business of the College to see that the instruction is sufficiently strong in intellectual appeal to make a given class-room a pleasanter place in which to be at the designated hour than the fraternity house or wherever may be the alternative? The *Quarterly* will probably be accused of a recommendation that undergraduate instruction be further softened and sweetened and predigested; but what we really mean is that it is quite possible through rigorous tests for College entrance and advancement and through an honestly administered system of prerequisites, to limit a given College class to students intellectually capable of appreciating good work on the part of the instructor. If the teacher can assume this, the main responsibility for excessive absences may lie, not upon the students, but upon him and upon those who appoint him.

F. P. K.

**The General Education Board**

The first report of the General Education Board, recounting the plans and accomplishments of twelve years, is most striking as an exposition of the employment of intelligence in the solution of educational problems. The problems were clearly conceived, the situation was in each case thoroughly and intelligently studied, fruitful ideas from whatever source were adopted, the most complete and wholehearted cooperation was maintained with other agencies working for the same ends, and a vast system was built up entirely free from what inevitably threatens such a system, mechanization.

The Board has had enormous financial resources at its command; but its resources are as nothing compared with the agencies, national, local and private, which it has put to work, or stimulated to greater activity. Of its six different fields, that of Farm Demonstration and Boys' and Girls' Clubs has shown the most striking results. In order to improve educational conditions in the South it became clearly necessary to improve the financial condition and hence the principal industry, namely agriculture. In the absence of trained teachers and of funds for teaching agriculture in the schools, and in the absence, too, of a conscious demand for such teaching, it was evident that the farmer himself must be shown the advantage of better methods and taught to use them. Selected farmers were induced to make their farms "demonstration farms," using seeds and methods prescribed by the agents of the Board and of the Department of Agriculture, which were working in cooperation. The demonstration farms produced crops which were often twice as great as those on other farms, and those in charge were taught, not only how to raise larger crops, but how to conduct farming as a business. The lesson was one which no community could fail to learn when it was enforced in "field meetings" under the direction of the demonstration agent.

The interest of the younger generation was enlisted through Boys' Corn Clubs and Girls' Canning and Poultry Clubs. Each of the members tilled a plot of ground in accordance with the directions of an expert. The proceeds went to the boys and girls; local, county and state prizes were awarded, and the prize-winners were sent to Washington and taken to see the President and the Secretary of Agriculture.

The results, economic and social, were extraordinary and contain promise of unmeasured future benefits. Increased support of education is only one of them.

The chapter on Colleges and Universities has much of immediate interest to us. Investigation shows, for instance, that almost all colleges draw the majority of their students from within a radius of 100 miles, while many draw principally from a considerably smaller area. "The modern university thrives and is most useful in close association with population, industry, and wealth," in short with a city. Moreover, "it is by no means clear that a rural location has to-day any substantial advantages at all over an urban location. The village or the wilderness was suitable to the college student, from twelve to fourteen years of age at matriculation and hardly more than sixteen at graduation, whose instruction was confined to ancient languages, the elements of mathematics, rhetoric, and philosophy. To-day the college student is on the verge of manhood; the college curriculum endeavors to include not only the treasures of historic culture, but the activities and ideals of contemporary life. From these points of view, the opportunities, influences, perhaps even the restraints, surrounding the student in a city of fifty or one hundred thousand inhabitants may well be superior to the influences in the country college situated in a little village which the students dominate." A. L. J.

**The Inauguration of President Graham**

The inauguration on April 21 of Edward Kidder Graham as President of the University of North Carolina draws attention to the widening of university leadership and service in the South. The oldest of our state universities, already committed to a program of wide variety, has lately appointed a director and an assistant director of the bureau of extension and professors of rural education and sociology. Through these experts educational, economic, and sociological conditions in North Carolina are regularly examined for the benefit alike of farmer, banker, and lawmaker. To lead movements so far-reaching President Graham has been prepared by liberal studies. His professorship in North Carolina was in English, and so were his graduate studies at Columbia, where he received his master's degree in 1903. Columbia was represented at the inauguration by Dean Woodbridge and Professor Pegram.

**Records of Civilization**

The new historical series announced on later pages of this number is one of the most extensive and significant undertakings of the Columbia University Press. The seventeen volumes there registered are but the initial numbers. Including both unpublished sources and new critical studies, the series is to be a guide to the material for the history of dominant movements in western civilization. So comprehensive a plan for promoting historical methods in examination and inference commands attention. It should be read through.

**The Popularization of Science**

In his address last December before the American Association for the Advancement of Science, Professor Keyser made a distinction very significant in university teaching. "Many a specialist shrinks from trying to present his subject to laymen because he looks upon such activity as a species of what is called popularization of science, and he believes that such popularization, even in its best sense, closely resembles vulgarization in its worst. He fancies that there is a sharp line bounding off knowledge that is mere knoweldge from knowledge that is scientific. In his view science is for specialists and for specialists only. He declines, on something like moral and esthetic grounds, to engage in what he calls playing to the gallery. It might, of course, be said that there is more than one way of playing to the gallery. It could be said that one way consists in acting the rôle of one who imagines that his intellectual interests are so austere and elevated and his thoughts so profound that a just sense of the awful dignity of his vocation imposes upon him, when in presence of the vulgar multitude, the solemn law of silence. It would be ungenerous, however, if not unfair, to insist upon the justice of such a possible retort. Rather let it be granted, for it is true, that much so-called popularization of science *is* vicious, relieving the ignorant of their modesty without relieving them of their ignorance, equipping them with the vocabulary of knowledge without its content and so fostering not only a vain and empty conceit, but a certain facility of speech that is seemly, impressive and valuable only when, as is too seldom the case, it is accompanied by solid attainments. To say this, however, is not to lay an indictment against that kind of scientific popularization which was so happily illustrated by the very greatest men of antiquity, which was not disdained even by Galileo in the beginnings of modern science nor by Leonardo da Vinci, and which in our own time has engaged the interest and skill of such men as Clifford and Helmholtz, Haeckel and Huxley, Mach, Ostwald, Enriques and Henri Poincaré. It is not to arraign that variety of popularization which any one may behold in the constant movement of ideas, once reserved exclusively for graduate students, down into undergraduate curricula and which has, for example, made the doctrine of limits, analytical geometry, projective geometry, and the notions of the derivative and the integral available for presentation to college freshmen or even to high-school pupils. It is not to condemn that kind of popularization which is so natural a process that it actually goes on in a thousand ways all about us without our deliberate coöperation, without our intention or our consent, and has enriched the common sense and common knowledge of our time with countless precious elements from among the scientific and philosophic discoveries made by other generations of men."

**Dissertations in Economics**

According to the list of Doctors' dissertations in Economics in progress in the United States in 1914–15 as published in the American Economic Association Review of June, 1914, we find the following figures:

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Columbia | 99 | Cornell | 8 |
| Chicago | 29 | Johns Hopkins | 7 |
| Harvard | 25 | Yale | 5 |
| Wisconsin | 16 | Scattering | 15 |
| Total | | | 204 |

In other words Columbia has just about as many students working for the Doctor's degree in Economics as all the other Universities in America together.

## STATISTICS OF THE RESIDENCE OF STUDENTS IN BARNARD COLLEGE FOR THE YEAR 1914–1915

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| *North Atlantic Division* | | |
| Connecticut | 8 | |
| Massachusetts | 7 | |
| New Jersey | 77 | |
| New York | 582 | |
| Pennsylvania | 10 | |
| Rhode Island | 2 | |
| | | 686 |
| *South Atlantic Division* | | |
| Georgia | 3 | |
| Maryland | 3 | |
| North Carolina | 3 | |
| South Carolina | 1 | |
| Virginia | 5 | |
| West Virginia | 1 | |
| | | 16 |
| *South Central Division* | | |
| Alabama | 2 | |
| Arkansas | 1 | |
| Mississippi | 1 | |
| Tennessee | 1 | |
| | | 5 |
| *North Central Division* | | |
| Iowa | 1 | |
| Michigan | 1 | |
| Minnesota | 2 | |
| Missouri | 3 | |
| Nebraska | 4 | |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| North Dakota | 1 | |
| Ohio | 6 | |
| | | 18 |
| *Western Division* | | |
| California | 1 | |
| Colorado | 2 | |
| New Mexico | 1 | |
| | | 4 |
| *Foreign Countries* | | |
| Canada | 2 | |
| China | 2 | |
| Grand total | | 733 |

## The Trustees

### MARCH MEETING

**General Administration.**—The President reported having received from the executors of the estate of the late Hugo Reisinger a copy of the will of Mr. Reisinger dated November 28, 1913, making bequests to Columbia University of $5,000 to be used for the benefit of the Deutsches Haus, and of $100,000 to be used for establishing a professorship of the History of Art.

The President also reported the receipt of a copy of the will of Emil C. Bondy, making a bequest of $100,000 to be used in the prosecution of research as to the cause, prevention and cure of cancer and the publication of the results of such researches.

The thanks of the Trustees were tendered:

To the Trustees of the East River Homes for their gift of $11,000, to be used to defray the expenses of medical treatment of indigent persons who are residents of the city of New York.

To Mrs. Frederick S. Coolidge of New York for her gift of $2,400 for the maintenance of two Research Fellowships in the Department of Medicine during the academic year 1915-16.

To the Royal Netherland Government for their gift of $875, toward the salary of the Queen Wilhelmina Lecturer for 1914-15.

To William G. Low, Law 1867, for his gift of $250 to be used for the purchase of books on maritime and international law.

The reconstruction of the first floor of University Hall in permanent fireproof form was authorized.

Appropriations were made for emergency repairs, necessitated by the fire in University Hall, and for the better protection of the University buildings and their equipment against fire.

**Financial Administration.** — 1. *Resolved,* That the following sums be and they are hereby appropriated for the maintenance and operation of the work of the University for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1916, namely:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| For Educational Administration and Instruction, to be expended as shown in detail in Schedule A, hereto annexed ....... | | $2,236,969.03 |
| For Buildings and Grounds, to be expended as shown in detail in Schedule B, hereto annexed ................ | | 269,923.00 |
| For the Library, to be expended as shown in detail in Schedule C, hereto annexed ....... | | 110,028.75 |
| For Business Administration, to be expended as shown in detail in Schedule D, hereto annexed ................. | | 63,100.00 |
| For Annuities, to be expended as shown in detail in Schedule E, hereto annexed........ | | 48,580.00 |
| For taxes and other charges upon the Loubat and Williamsbridge properties (including interest apportioned to the Loubat property as shown in Schedule G, hereto annexed, $25,440), to be expended as shown in detail in Schedule F, hereto annexed.. | | 111,940.00 |
| For interst on the corporate debt | $145,310. | |
| Less interest apportioned to the Loubat property ($25,440) and interest charged to the Crocker Research Building ($1,395), as shown in Schedule G, hereto annexed ...... | $ 26,835. | 118,475.00 |

| | |
|---|---|
| For payment on account of Redemption Fund, due June 1, 1916 ...... | 100,000.00 |
| Making in all the sum of ........... | $3,059,015.78 |

which sum is made chargeable as shown in detail in the accompanying schedules:

| | |
|---|---|
| To the income of the corporation ......... | $2,089,244.64 |
| To the income of special funds .......... | 347,253.58 |
| To gifts .............. | 163,687.56 |
| To moneys to be paid by Barnard College.. | 139,550.00 |
| To moneys to be paid by Teachers College .... | 207,340.00 |
| To Special Real Estate Account— | |
| Loubat and Williamsbridge Properties ........... | 111,940.00 |
| | $3,059,015.78 |

2. *Resolved,* That pursuant to the provisions of the By-Laws, Chapter 10, Section 11, the income of the John Stewart Kennedy Fund for the year ending June 30, 1916, together with any accumulation of income, be added to the general income of the corporation for that year.

3. *Resolved,* That all offices not provided for in these Schedules be and hereby are abolished from and after June 30, 1915, and that all offices provided for in said schedules, if they be not already in existence, be and hereby are established from and after June 30, 1915, for one year, or during the pleasure of the Trustees.

4. *Resolved,* That the Loubat property be charged and the interest account credited with interest paid on the mortgage on that property, and with interest at 4 per cent on the net amount of the advances made on account of the Gaillard-Loubat Library Endowment Fund.

5. *Resolved,* That until the further order of the Trustees the excess of expenditures over the income of the Williamsbridge property be charged to the account of principal of said property.

6. *Resolved,* That for the year 1915–16 only, there be established, in lieu of the following scholarships established by the provisions of the Statutes, Chapters 30 and 31, and chargeable to the general income of the corporation, the following additional scholarships chargeable to the accumulated income of the special funds indicated; upon condition that such additional scholarships shall be awarded in accordance with the terms of the gifts by which the special funds were established, and that the persons to whom such additional scholarships are awarded shall be subject to the rules and regulations governing holders of University Scholarships:

*University Scholarships:*

In lieu of 1 University Scholarship at $150, 1 additional Richard Butler Scholarship at $150.

*College of Physicians and Surgeons:*

In lieu of 16 Additional Scholarships at $250, 16 additional Blumenthal Scholarships at $250.

The Budget, as adopted March 2, 1914, was amended by certain rearrangements in the Departments of Architecture and Agriculture.

**Educational Administration.**—Leaves of Absence were granted as follows:

David Bovaird, Jr., M.D., Assistant Professor of Clinical Medicine, from April 15 to November 15, 1915. 1915–16 *for the entire academic year:* Grace A. Hubbard, A.M., Associate Professor of English in Barnard College; Edward L. Thorndike, Ph.D., Professor of Educational Psychology in Teachers College; Charles H. Farnsworth, Associate Professor of School Music in Teachers College; Frank M. McMurry, Ph.D., Professor of Elementary Education in Teachers College. *From February 1, 1916, to February 1, 1917:* Henry R. Seager, Ph.D., Professor of Political Economy. *For the first half-year:* Franz Boas, Ph.D., Professor of Anthropology; Frank N. Cole, Ph.D., Professor of Mathematics; Thomas S. Fiske, Ph.D., Professor of Mathematics; Henry C. Sherman, Ph.D., Professor of Food Chemistry; J. McKeen Cattell, Ph.D., Professor of Psychology; James H. McGregor, Ph.D., Associate Professor of Zoölogy. *For the second half-year:* Louis A. Loiseaux, B.S., Associate Professor of the Romance Languages and Literatures; Henry R. Mussey, Ph.D., Associate Professor of Economics; William P. Trent, LL.D., Professor of English Literature; William G. MacCallum, M.D., Professor of Pathology; Brander Matthews, LL.D., Professor of Dramatic Literature; Carlton C. Curtis, Ph.D., Associate

Professor of Botany; Herbert G. Lord, A.M., Professor of Philosophy; Marie Reimer, Ph.D., Associate Professor of Chemistry in Barnard College; Paul Monroe, Ph.D., Professor of the History of Education in Teachers College; Richard E. Dodge, A.M., Professor of Geography in Teachers College, for the second half of the current academic year.

The following promotions were made: Charles A. Beard, Ph.D., now Associate Professor of Politics, to be Professor of Politics; William Campbell, Ph.D., now Associate Professor of Metallurgy, to be Professor of Metallurgy; William A. Hervey, A.M., now Associate Professor of the Germanic Languages and Literatures, to be Professor of the Germanic Languages and Literatures; Vladimir G. Simkhovitch, Ph.D., now Associate Professor of Economic History, to be Professor of Economic History; Carlton Hayes, Ph.D., now Assistant Professor of History, to be Associate Professor of History; J. Harold Morecroft, E.E., now Assistant Professor of Electrical Engineering, to be Associate Professor of Electrical Engineering; Edward S. Elliott, M.D., now Instructor in Physical Education, to be Assistant Professor of Physical Education; James K. Finch, C.E., A.M., now Instructor in Civil Engineering, to be Assistant Professor of Civil Engineering; Edward K. Judd, E.M., now Instructor in Mining, to be Assistant Professor of Mining; Benjamin B. Kendrick, A.M., now Instructor in History, to be Assistant Professor of History; Lincoln DeGroot Moss, now Associate in Mechanical Engineering, to be Assistant Professor of Mechanical Engineering; Henry H. L. Schulze, A.M., now Instructor in the Germanic Languages and Literatures, to be Assistant Professor of the Germanic Languages and Literatures; Friedrich O. Willhöfft, E.M., now Instructor in Mechanical Engineering, to be Assistant Professor of Mechanical Engineering; Edward J. Grant, A.B., now Chief Clerk in the Registrar's Office, to be Assistant Registrar; William Heard Kilpatrick, Ph.D., now Assistant Professor of Education, to be Associate Professor of Education; Milo Burdette Hillegas, Ph.D., now Assistant Professor of Education, to be Associate Professor of Education.

The following assignments were made: Adam Leroy Jones, Ph.D., Associate Professor of Philosophy, to be Director of University Admissions; Harrison R. Steeves, Ph.D., Assistant Professor of English, to be Assistant Director of University Admissions.

*Faculty of Applied Science:* Assistant Professors James K. Finch (Civil Engineering), Edward K. Judd (Mining), Lincoln DeGroot Moss (Mechanical Engineering) and Friedrich O. Willhöfft (Mechanical Engineering).

*Faculty of Education:* Professors William Heard Kilpatrick (Education), Milo Burdette Hillegas (Education), Thomas Henry Briggs (Education) and Gunther (Practical Arts).

The following appointments were confirmed: Frank A. Strauss, A.B., to be Laboratory Assistant in Electro-Chemistry, from February 1 to June 30, 1915, vice Alexander Lowy, resigned; Julius Arthur Brown, A.M., to be Lecturer in Physics, from February 1 to June 30, 1915, vice William H. Murphy, Assistant, resigned; Warren Hildreth, M.D., to be Instructor in Obstetrics, from January 1 to June 30, 1915, vice Joseph E. Engelson, M.D., resigned.

The following appointments were made: Thomas S. Fiske, Ph.D., to be Administrative Head of the Department of Mathematics for two years from July 1, 1915.

From July 1, 1915, during the pleasure of the Trustees: Virginia C. Gildersleeve, Ph.D., Dean; William T. Brewster, A.M., Provost; Anna E. H. Meyer, A.B., Registrar; Katharine S. Doty, A.M., Secretary; Franz Boas, Ph.D., LL.D., Professor of Anthropology; Herbert M. Richards, Sc.D., Professor of Botany; Tracy E. Hazen, Ph.D., Assistant Professor of Botany; Marion E. Latham, A.M., Instructor in Botany; Mary W. Stewart, A.B., Assistant in Botany; Marie Reimer, Ph.D., Associate Professor of Chemistry; Eleanor Keller, A.M., Instructor in Chemistry; Viola Turck, A.B., Assistant in Chemistry; La Rue Van Hook, Ph.D., Associate Professor of Classical Philology; William S. Messer, A.M., Instructor in Classical Philology; Charles Knapp, Ph.D., Professor of Classical Philology; Gertrude M. Hirst, Ph.D., Assistant Professor of Classical Philology; Grace

H. Goodale, A.B., Lecturer in Classical Philology; Henry R. Seager, Ph.D., Professor of Political Economy; Vladimir G. Simkhovitch, Ph.D., Professor of Political Economy; Henry R. Mussey, Ph.D., Associate Professor of Economics; Robert E. Chaddock, Ph.D., Associate Professor of Statistics; Emilie J. Hutchinson, A.M., Instructor in Economics; William P. Trent, A.M., LL.D., D.C.L., Professor of English Literature; William T. Brewster, A.M., Professor of English; Virginia C. Gildersleeve, Ph.D., Professor of English; Charles S. Baldwin, Ph.D., Professor of Rhetoric and English Composition; Grace A. Hubbard, A.M., Associate Professor of English; Mabel F. Weeks, A.B., Associate in English; William Haller, A.M., Instructor in English; Clare M. Howard, Ph.D., Instructor in English; Ethel Sturtevant, A.M., Instructor in English; Ida H. Ogilvie, Ph.D., Assistant Professor of Geology; Calvin Thomas, LL.D., Gebhard Professor of the Germanic Languages and Literatures; Wilhelm A. Braun, Ph.D., Associate Professor of the Germanic Languages and Literatures; Allen W. Porterfield, Ph.D., Instructor in the Germanic Languages and Literatures; Juliana S. Haskell, Ph.D., Instructor in the Germanic Languages and Literatures; Gottlieb A. Betz, A.M., Instructor in the Germanic Languages and Literatures; James H. Robinson, Ph.D., Professor of History; George W. Botsford, Ph.D., Professor of History; David S. Muzzey, Ph.D., Associate Professor of History; Emily J. Putnam, A.B., Associate in History; Maude A. Huttmann, Ph.D., Instructor in History; Frank N. Cole, Ph.D., Professor of Mathematics; Edward Kasner, Ph.D., Professor of Mathematics; Harold B. Curtis, Ph.D., Instructor in Mathematics; William P. Montague, Ph.D., Associate Professor of Philosophy; Harry L. Hollingworth, Ph.D., Assistant Professor of Psychology; Margaret E. Maltby, Ph.D., Associate Professor of Physics; Grace Langford, S.B., Instructor in Physics; Charles A. Beard, Ph.D., Professor of Politics; Arthur W. Macmahon, A.B., Instructor in Politics; Raymond Weeks, Ph.D., Professor of the Romanic Languages and Literatures; Louis A. Loiseaux, B.S., Associate Professor of the Romance Languages and Literatures; John L. Gerig, Ph.D., Associate Professor of Celtic; Henri F. Muller, B. ès L., Ph.D., Assistant Professor of the Romance Languages and Literatures; Luther Herbert Alexander, Ph.D., Instructor in the Romance Languages and Literatures; Henry E. Crampton, Ph.D., Professor of Zoölogy; Raymond C. Osburn, Ph.D., Assistant Professor of Zoölogy; Pauline H. Dederer, A.M., Instructor in Zoölogy; Louise H. Gregory, Ph.D., Instructor in Zoölogy; Florence deL. Lowther, A.B., Assistant in Zoölogy; Bertha L. Rockwell, Librarian; N. W. Liggett, A.B., Bursar.

From July 1, 1915, during the pleasure of the Trustees: Thomas Henry Briggs, Ph.D., to be Associate Professor of Education; Emma H. Gunther, B.S., to be Assistant Professor of Household Administration.

### APRIL MEETING

**General Administration.**—The Clerk reported the death, on March 19, 1915, of Mr. William D. Sloane, a member of the Board since 1913.

The President reported the death, on March 14, 1915, of Mr. Samuel Bowles, a member of the Advisory Board of the School of Journalism.

The thanks of the Trustees were tendered:

To the anonymous donor of the sum of $30,000, to be applied, under the direction of the President, to the reconstruction and new equipment of the chemical laboratories in Havemeyer Hall.

To Mrs. Samuel W. Bridgham for her gift of $20,000 to establish a fellowship, to be awarded annually by the Faculty of Applied Science, in memory of her late husband, Samuel Willard Bridgham of the Class of 1867, School of Mines.

To the anonymous donor of the sum of $4,000, to be added to the income of the William T. Bull Memorial Fund for the support of surgical research.

To William R. Peters for his gift of $500, to be added to the income for the current academic year of the William R. Peters, Jr. Fund for research in the Department of Civil Engineering.

To Gano Dunn, of the Class of 1891 Science, for his gift of $250 for the maintenance of the Gano Dunn Scholarship in Applied Science for the academic year 1914–15.

To the anonymous donor of the sum of $68 to supplement the stipend of the current year of the Frank Hartley Scholarship in the Medical School.

To the District of Columbia Alumni Association of Columbia University for their gift of $50, to be applied toward the tuition fee for the current academic year of a designated student in the College.

To Mrs. Emil L. Boas for her gift of $25 for the purchase of books for the Emil L. Boas Memorial Library in the Deutsches Haus.

To Mrs. Daniel E. Hervey for her gift of the musical library of her late husband, consisting of 944 bound and unbound volumes.

The President reported the acceptance of the following invitations from the University: James M. Taylor, D.D., LL.D., to serve as Baccalaureate Preacher at Commencement, 1915; the Hon. William Howard Taft to deliver the lectures on the George Blumenthal Foundation in the autumn of 1915; E. B. Wilson, Ph.D., Professor of Zoölogy, to make the opening address at Morningside Heights in 1915; Francis Carter Wood, M.D., to make the opening address at the Medical School.

**Financial Administration.**—The Budget for 1914–15, as adopted March 2, 1914, was amended by certain rearrangements in the Departments of Economics and Electrical Engineering.

The Budget for 1915–16, as adopted March 1, 1915, was amended by certain rearrangements at the Presbyterian Hospital.

**Educational Administration.**—Leaves of Absence were granted as follows: Hans Zinsser, M.D., Professor of Bacteriology, from April 1 to June 9, 1915; Edward R. Smith, A.B., Librarian of the Avery Architectural Library, for the remainder of the current academic year.

Resignations were accepted as follows: Earle D. Babcock, Lecturer in Romance Languages at Barnard College; Raymond C. Osburn, Ph.D., Assistant Professor of Zoölogy.

The following appointments were confirmed: Percival S. Goan, M.E., to be Assistant in Mechanical Engineering, from March 1 to June 30, 1915, vice W. B. Eddison, resigned; Clarence D. Mapes, Met.E., to be Assistant in Metallurgy from April 1 to June 30, 1915, vice Roy U. Wood, resigned; Herbert J. Wiener, M.D., to be Assistant in Medicine from March 1 to June 30, 1915.

Appointments were made as follows:

During the Summer Session of 1915:

*Agriculture:* O. S. Morgan, Orlando C. Bowes, F. J. Burgdorff, Dyer B. Lake.

*Anthropology:* Franz Boas, Alexander Goldenweiser.

*Architecture:* Charles A. Harriman, Frank D. Sherman, George Marcus Allen, Richard Franz Bach, Arthur Ware, DeWitt Clinton Pond.

*Astronomy:* Harold Jacoby.

*Botany:* Carlton Clarence Curtis, William G. Marquette, Edgar Altenburg, Clifford Harrison Farr, Michael Levine, R. C. Faulwetter.

*Chemistry:* Hal Trueman Beans, Robert Peyton Calvert, Harold A. Fales, Harry Linn Fisher, Thomas Bruce Freas, Paul C. Haeseler, James Kendall, E. H. Leslie, J. L. R. Morgan, Arthur C. Neish, John Maurice Nelson, George Scatchard, Henry Clapp Sherman, Arthur Waldorf Thomas, C. M. Carson; H. E. Eastlack, John C. Baker, J. E. Booge, J. K. Marcus, A. P. Tanberg, Earl S. Porter, H. L. Olin, Kenneth P. Monroe.

*Classical Philology:* Irving Comes Demarest, Charles Knapp, Nelson Glenn McCrea, Grace Harriet Macurdy, William Stuart Messer, Frank Gardner Moore, Edgar Howard Sturtevant, Theodora Ethel Wye.

*Commercial Subjects: Advertising and Salesmanship*—Guy Richard Hubbart; *Bookkeeping*—S. Bernard Koopman; *Commercial Administration*—William R. Hayward; *Commercial Arithmetic*—George H. Van Tuyl; *Commercial Law*—Ralph E. Rogers.

*Drawing:* Ralph Edward Mayer.

*Economics:* Eugene E. Agger, Robert Emmet Chaddock, William F. Gephart, Alvin S. Johnson, W. H. S. Stevens, Donald S. Tucker.

*Engineering:* Walter I. Slichter, Frederick William Hehre.

*English:* Harry M. Ayres, Charles Sears Baldwin, Arthur Charles L. Brown, Frank Wadleigh Chandler, Estelle H. Davis, Daniel B. Duncan, John Erskine, Dean Spruill Fansler, Ernest M. Halliday (Public Speaking), Will David Howe, Clark Sutherland Northup, George C. D. Odell, Harrison R. Steeves, A. DeV. Tassin, Ashley H. Thorndike, William P. Trent, Blanche C. Williams, Samuel W. Patterson.

*Geography:* Douglas Wilson Johnson, Charles T. McFarlane; Laura Hatch.

*Geology:* George Irving Finlay, Hervey Woodburn Shimer.

*German:* Matthew G. Bach, Gottlieb Betz, Traugott Böhme, Wilhelm Alfred Braun, John Bates Eyster, George H. Danton, Jesse M. Gray, William Addison Hervey, Frederick W. J. Heuser, Harry V. E. Palmblad, Allen Wilson Porterfield, Arthur Frank Joseph Remy, Frederick William Scholz, Henry H. L. Schulze.

*History:* Dixon R. Fox, Carlton Hayes, Edward Frank Humphrey, Benjamin Burks Kendrick, Edward Benjamin Krehbiel, Charles Ramsdell Lingley, Ralph V. D. Magoffin, David Saville Muzzey, F. A. Ogg, J. Salwyn Schapiro, Robert Livingston Schuyler, James Thomson Shotwell, Roscoe R. Hill, Peter H. Goldsmith; Henry Ewart Grimshaw, Eugene E. Rovillain, Martin W. Smith.

*International Law and Diplomacy:* Henry F. Munro.

*Law:* George Henry Boke, W. W. Cook, Michael F. Dee, George W. Kirchwey, James Patterson McBaine, D. O. McGovney, Stephen A. McIntire, Edward S. Thurston; Charles G. Coster.

*Library Economy:* Mary E. Hall, Helen R. Keller, Ida M. Mendenhall, Doris Wilbur; Frederick C. Hicks.

*Mathematics:* Charles A. Fischer, William Benjamin Fite, Gordon Harwood Graves, Charles C. Grove, Edward Kasner, James Maclay, F. J. McMackin, George W. Mullins, Harry Wilfred Reddick, Lewis Parker Siceloff.

*Mechanics:* Francis M. McCullough, Frank C. Scroeder, Herbert L. Whittemore.

*Medicine:* William A. Downes (surgery), James G. Dwyer (bacteriology), William John Gies (biological chemistry), J. Gardner Hopkins (bacteriology), Robert A. Lambert (pathology), Alwin Max Pappenheimer (pathology), Frederick Prime (cancer research), George A. Tuttle (medical diagnosis), Karl M. Vogel (clinical pathology), William H. Woglom (cancer research); Francis C. Wood (cancer research); Arthur B. Eisenbrey (cancer research).

*Metallurgy:* Everett J. Hall.

*Mineralogy:* Alfred J. Moses, Harry Francis Gardner.

*Music:* Rossetter G. Cole, Peter W. Dykema, Walter Henry Hall, Margaret E. Maltby.

*Philosophy:* Harold Chapman Brown, Matthew Thompson McClure, William Pepperrell Montague, Frederick James Eugene Woodbridge.

*Physical Education:* George T. Holm (see T.C.), Whitelaw Reid Morrison, Charles Digby Wardlaw (see T.C.); W. D. Hartshorne, G. Salwen.

*Physics:* Julian Blanchard, Hermon Waldo Farwell, Gordon Ferrie Hull, John Harold Morecroft, Leighton B. Morse, George B. Pegram, Willard Lesly Severinghaus, William Warren Stifler, Morris F. Weinrich.

*Physiology:* Russell Burton-Opitz.

*Politics:* Clarence A. Dykstra, Thomas Reed Powell, Edward McChesney Sait.

*Psychology:* Harry Levi Hollingworth, Albert T. Poffenberger, Jr., Margaret Floy Washburn, Robert Sessions Woodworth; John J. B. Morgan.

*Religion:* Walter Scott Athearn, Daniel Johnson Fleming, James Everett Frame, Robert Ernest Hume, Raymond C. Knox, Robert W. Rogers.

*Romance Languages:* Luther Herbert Alexander, Francis B. Barton, Albert M. Cohn-McMaster, Pierre de Bacourt, John Driscoll Fitz-Gerald, II, Edward Joseph Fortier, John Lawrence Gerig, Philip M. Hayden, R. H. Bonilla, Louis Imbert, Daniel Jordan, Garibaldi Laguardia, Louis Auguste Loiseaux, Kenneth McKenzie, Henri Francois Muller, Eugene Ellis Vann, Bert Edward Young, Raymond Weeks.

*Sociology:* Edward T. Devine, Franklin H. Giddings, Samuel McCune Lindsay, Herbert N. Shenton.

*Stenography:* Frederick Reginald Beygrau, Frederick M. Booth, W. E. Harned, Horace G. Healey, Walter E. Ingersoll; Henry Logan.

*Zoölogy:* Gary N. Calkins, James Howard McGregor; Herman J. Muller.

*Special Appointments: Assistants to the Director*—Frank Allen Patterson, Leonidas Wakefield Crawford, Jr., James K. Finch.

*University Medical Officer:* William H. McCastline; Martha V. Carling.

*In charge of Furnald Hall:* Katherine C. Reily.

### TEACHERS COLLEGE

*Demonstration School:* Henry Carr Pearson, Clara M. Wheeler, Anna F. Magee, Myrtle Garrison, Laura A. Gillmore, Mrs. Mary A. Oliver, Mabel A. Neal, Elmore Curt Walther, Irene M. Steele, Ethel Fair, Isabel McKinney, John H. Minnick, Frederic Woellner, Helen Crissey.

*Education:* George Drayton Strayer, Joseph Marr Gwinn, Charles A. Prosser, Andrew W. Edson, M. Rex Trabue, Rita Cohen, Frank Morton McMurry, Milo B. Hillegas, John W. Hall, Mrs. John W. Hall, Lida B. Earhart, Theda Gildemeister, Ernest Horn, James C. Bay, Mary Maud Patrick, Paul Monroe, Ernest N. Henderson, Stephen P. Duggan, Willystine Goodsell, Grace L. Brown, Caroline Crawford, Mary D. Hill, Agnes Burke, Mary E. Pennell, Mary E. Rankin, William Heard Kilpatrick, Stephen P. Duggan, Stephen S. Colvin, Walter Dill Scott, Henry A. Ruger, Louis E. Bisch, Mary T. Whitley, Sarah Fisk, J. L. Stenquist, Warren H. Wilson, Thomas E. Finegan, Mabel Carney, Ethel Gowans, A. E. Wilson, Thomas H. Briggs, Romiett Stevens, Henry Suzzallo, Charles A. Prosser, H. L. Hollingworth.

*Biology:* Maurice A. Bigelow, Jean Broadhurst, Caroline Stackpole; L. G. McClelland.

*English:* Franklin T. Baker, Allan Abbott, H. H. Goldberger.

*Geography:* Richard E. Dodge, Clara B. Kirchwey.

*History:* Henry Johnson.

*Latin:* Edward C. Chickering.

*Mathematics:* Clifford B. Upton, William E. Breckenridge, Joseph Clifton Brown.

*Modern Languages:* E. W. Bagster-Collins, Albert A. Meras, Caroline Kreykenbohm, Mlle. Anna de Bouligny.

*Physical Science:* Roland Hugh Williams, Alton I. Lockhart, George D. von Hofe.

*School of Practical Arts:* Caroline E. Stackpole, Jean Broadhurst, Clifford D. Carpenter, Hermann T. Vulté, Ellen B. McGowan, William J. Gies, Emily C. Seaman.

*Physics:* Fred Foreman Good, Geo. D. von Hofe.

*Fine Arts:* Arthur Wesley Dow, Otto Victor Humann, Julia Hill Atwell, George J. Cox, Belle Boas, Grace V. Bliss (secretary).

*Household Arts:* LaMont A. Warner, Robert Paul Gray, Claggett Wilson, Anna M. Cooley, Cora M. Winchell, Wilhelmina Spohr, Mary S. Rose, Helene M. Pope, Elizabeth Brooks, May B. Van Arsdale, Lilian M. B. Gunn, Bertha E. Shapleigh, Mary Henley Peacock, Elsa Frame, Anna Barrows, Anne D. Blitz, Elizabeth Cushing, Cornelia H. Stone, Bertha Avery, Elizabeth Mann, Mary Uhl, Millicent L. Sears, Florence Patten, Jane Fales, Ruth Wilmot, Ruth Penfield Sill, Laura I. Baldt, Evelyn Smith Tobey, Marjorie Kinney, Joseph Gross, Mildred Booth, Margaret Becker, Matilda McKeown, Emma A. Winslow, Edna M. Klaer, Benjamin R. Andrews.

*Industrial Arts:* Frederick Gordon Bonser, Sara Lyman Patrick, Bertha M. Bentley, Bertha Rector, Florence E. House, Frederick Gordon Bonser, H. L. Hollingworth, Charles William Weick, Frank C. Panuska, William Noyes, Joseph H. Constantine, J. F. Fuller, Charles Conrad Sleffel, Charles J. Martin, John J. Walsh.

*Music and Speech:* Charles H. Farnsworth, Azubah J. Latham, William Jacob Kraft, Helen Latham, May Kirk Scripture, Jessie Katherine Macdonald, DeLoss Smith, Edgar Stowell, Alma Norton.

*Nursing and Health:* Annie W. Goodrich, Anne H. Strong, S. Josephine Baker.

*Physical Education:* Jesse Feiring Williams, J. C. Elsom, Harold Brown Keyes, Franklin Charles Fette, Charles D. Wardlaw, Maud March, George T. Holm, Madame Eva A. Alberti, Gertrude Kline Colby, Leona H. Fette, Alice Hawksley, G. Martin Caskey, M. Irene Pray, Whitelaw R. Morrison, W. L. Coop.

*Special Appointments: Director of School of Education,* Paul Monroe; *Director of School of Practical Arts,* Maurice A. Bigelow; *Secretary,* Charles W. Hunt; *Social Director,* Margaret

P. Kilpatrick; S. Alfred Mitchell, Ph.D., Director of the Leander McCormick Observatory at the University of Virginia, to be Ernest Kempton Adams Research Fellow for the year 1915–16.

## UNIVERSITY COUNCIL

*February meeting.*—1. The Secretary reported for record that sixty-three candidates for the degree of Master of Arts and nine for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy had completed the requirements for the degrees sought and were entitled to receive diplomas.

2. *Resolved,* that paragraph 8, page 460, of the Minutes of the University Council, under date of February 21, 1911, be stricken from the regulations governing the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts. The paragraph reads: "No candidate for the degree of Master of Arts shall be permitted to register for less than the equivalent of one full course in any half year."

3. *Resolved,* that the Council concur in the recommendation of the Faculties of Political Science, Philosophy, and Pure Science:

(1) To amend paragraph 6, page 459, of the Minutes of the University Council under date of February 21, 1911, to read as follows:

> Every curriculum for the degree of Master of Arts shall comprise at least the equivalent of seven full courses of graduate rank together with an essay or the equivalent thereof.

(2) To substitute for paragraph 9, page 460, the following:

> An essay or the equivalent thereof shall be required of candidates for the degree of Master of Arts by the department of major interest and shall be designed to occupy one quarter of the candidate's time for a half-year.

4. *Resolved,* that the approval of graduate courses under the Faculties of Political Science, Philosophy, and Pure Science be referred to the Executive Committee of the Council with power.

5. The establishment of the Samuel Franklin Emmons Memorial Fellowship was reported for record in the Minutes of the Council as follows:

The friends of the late Dr. Samuel Franklin Emmons have established a fund whose income may be used in support of a fellowship to promote investigations in the branches of geology which were cultivated by him, more especially on the economic side. The funds have been placed in charge of the Trustees of Columbia University, but the choice of the fellow and the expenditure of the income are entrusted to a Committee consisting of Professors James F. Kemp, John D. Irving and Waldemar Lindgren. The Committee will be prepared to award in March, 1915, a fellowship of $1,000 for the year July 1, 1915, to June 30, 1916.

6. The plan for a University Committee on Admissions was approved.

7. Papers relating to the game of football were ordered printed and referred to the Faculty of Columbia College for consideration and report.

# RECORDS OF CIVILIZATION

## SOURCES AND STUDIES

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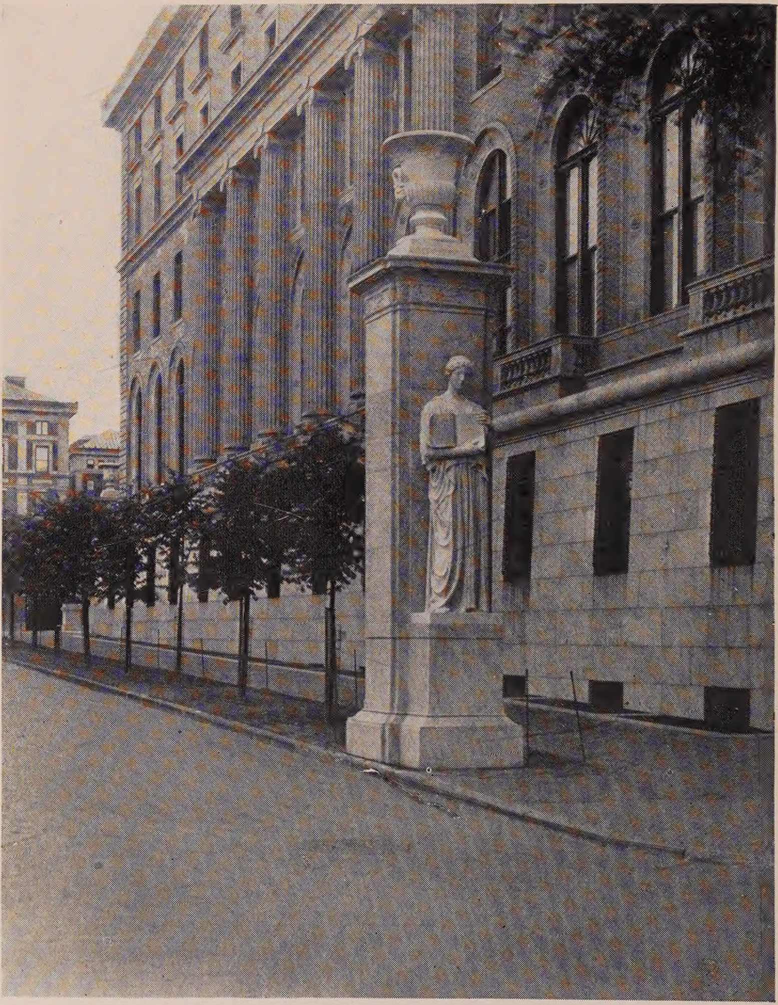

PYLON, GIFT OF '90 ARTS AND MINES